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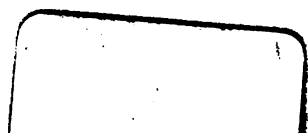
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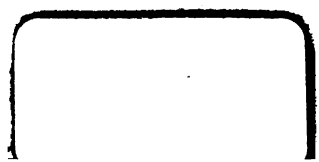
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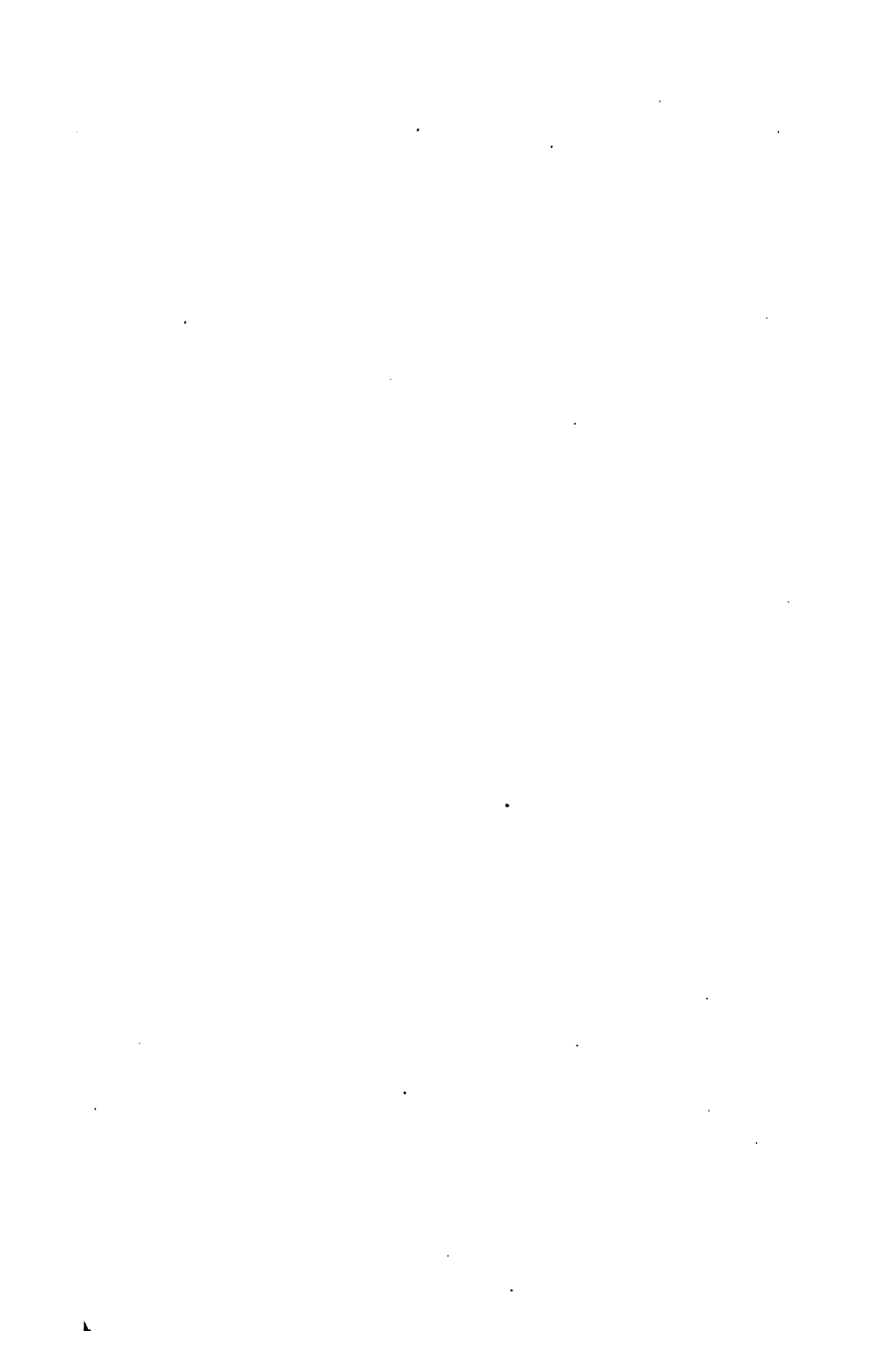
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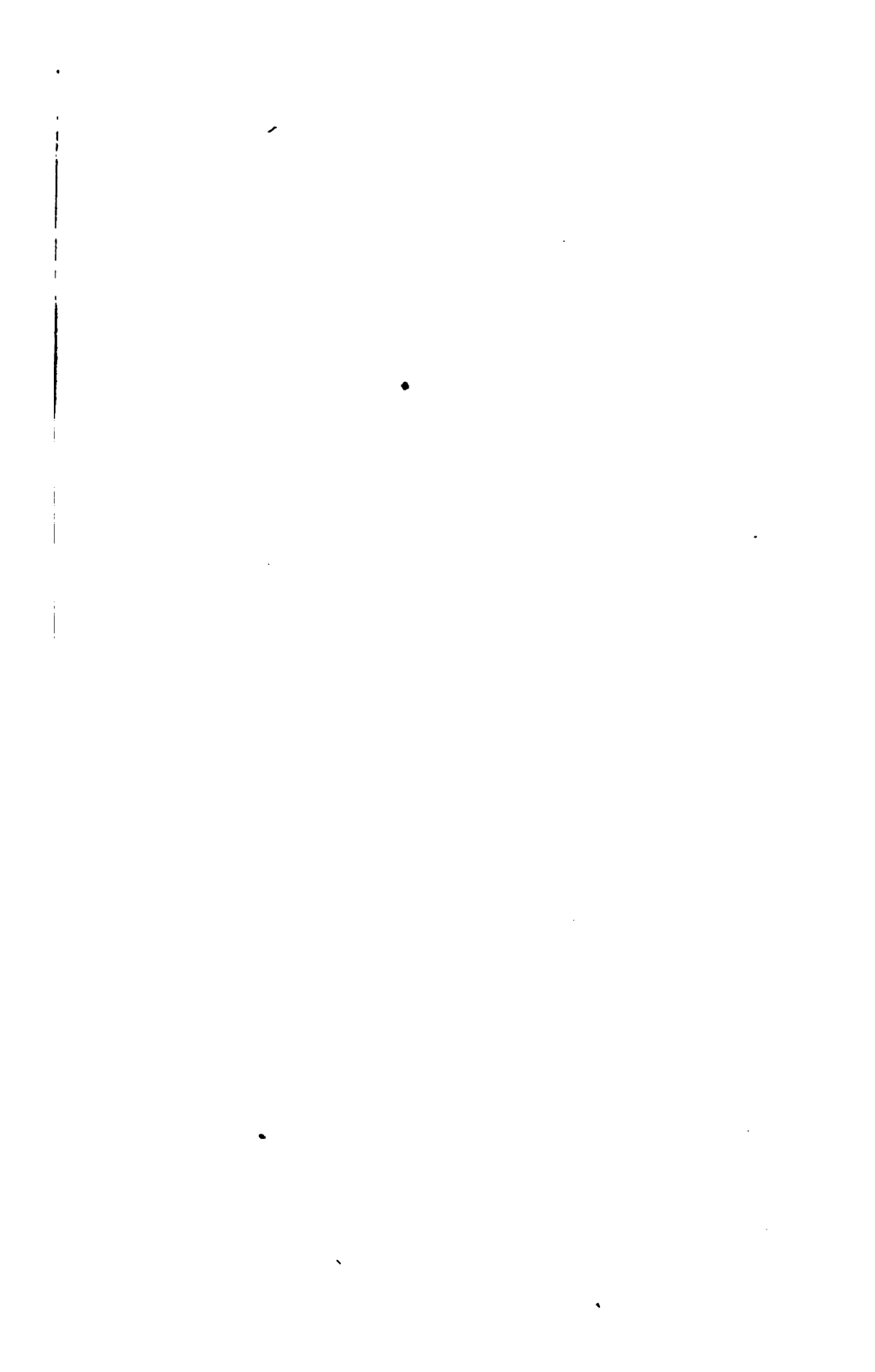


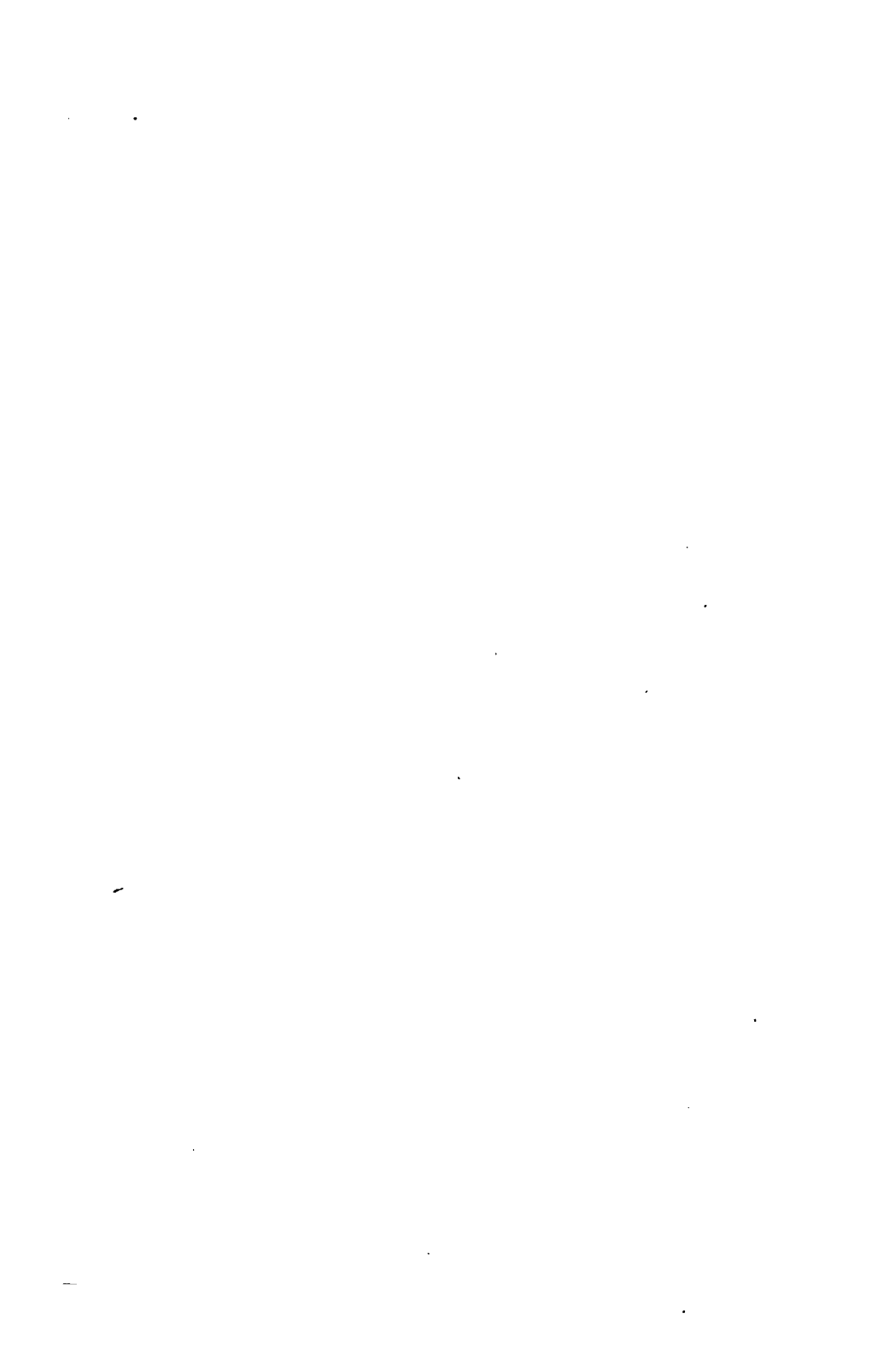




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Ναὺς δὲ ὅ, τι πᾶσι ὑμῖν μέλλει συνίσθαι.

*Demosthenes.*

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VOLUME XLVIII.

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## ERRATA in Volume XLVIII.

- Page 8. l. 5. for 'plan,' r. *plant*.  
 30. l. 19. from bott. for 'following piece,' r. fowling piece.  
 178. l. 10. from bott. for 'might,' r. *may*; and l. 8. fr. bott. for 'may' r. *might*.  
 179. l. 20. for *ισως* r. *ισως*.  
 261. l. 14. from bott. for 'compotion' r. *composition*.  
 300. l. 13. dele 'with' after 'in'.  
 328. l. 8. for 'hepatic,' r. *berpetic*.  
 336. l. 8. insert the word *better* before 'chance.'  
 373. l. 7. from bott. for *ορος, κατωμυρον* r. *ορος κατωμυρον*,  
 393. l. 3. for 'consequence,' r. *sequentes*.

# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1805.

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ART. I. *The Transactions of the Linnean Society of London*, Vol. VII.  
4to. pp. 355. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. White. 1804.

FEW naturalists will peruse these communications without expressing a wish, that the learned body from whom they proceed may be long enabled to persevere in their labours of diligence and zeal. The liberal terms of their royal charter, and the considerate spirit of their bye-laws, (copies of which are prefixed to the present volume,) certainly augur well to the permanence and prosperity of the institution; and a still more flattering presage of laudable exertion may be deduced from the highly respectable character of the memoirs already published.

Of the twenty-two additional papers now before us, the first is intitled, *A new Arrangement of the genus Aloë, with a chronological Sketch of the progressive Knowledge of that Genus, and of other succulent Genera*, by Adrian Hardy Haworth, Esq., F.L.S. —So far as the extrication of this hitherto neglected and confused genus is concerned, Mr. Haworth has the strongest claims to the gratitude of every intelligent botanist. His synoptical view includes not fewer than fifty one distinct species, independently of varieties, and of nine species described on the authority of Muntingius, Plukenet, Petiver, Commeline, and Tilli. When we reflect that scarcely any one of these sixty species can be tolerably preserved in an herbarium,—that only fourteen are particularized in the enlarged and improved edition of Millar's Dictionary, now publishing by Martyn,—that Mr. Haworth has, during these fifteen years, assiduously collected and cultivated all the sorts of aloës and succulent plants which he was able to procure,—and that forty-one of the species which he describes are still alive in his possession,—we may form some notion of the importance and extent of this gentleman's investigations.

'I have given, (says he,) among other select synonyma, a reference to every figured Aloë in my possession: so far at least as they belong  
Vol. XLVIII. B

to the plants I have described. This is more than I intended, in the outset of the business, to have done; but finding the very involved and intricate state of the whole genus absolutely required it, I redoubled my exertions and new-modelled the whole; and, with the assistance of the living plants themselves (which I found indispensably necessary to have always before me), have given to my *specifica differentia* that decisive kind of perspicuity which they could not possibly have received in any other way. I claim no merit on this account, because any other person, of equal diligence, might have done as much, perhaps more, had he been in possession of the same advantageous materials.'

Where do we find persons of equal diligence, and possessed of the same advantageous materials? Or, if both could be easily procured, we might still lament the absence of those discriminating talents which are so conspicuously manifested by the writer of the present paper. As, however, to avoid prolixity, he has suppressed the detailed descriptions, and selected merely some of the best references, we trust that we may regard his new arrangement as only the prelude of a more extended and finished monography.

*On the Germination of the Seeds of Orchidee.* By Richard Anthony Salisbury, Esq. F.R.S. and L.S.—Mr. Salisbury's observations prove that the seeds of several of these tribes both germinate and vegetate; and that, therefore, the received opinion concerning their sterility is a mere prejudice. The experiment succeeded with him upwards of a hundred times on *Orchis morio*,—*mascula*,—*latifolia*,—*maculata*,—*apifera*, *Ophrys sphegodes*, all the *Limodora* which happened to be in the garden, and *Epidendrum cochleatum*.

*Account of the Tusseh and Arrindy Silk-worms of Bengal.* By William Roxburgh, M.D. F.L.S.—As these insects have been already described by naturalists, we shall not follow Dr. Roxburgh in all the particulars which he mentions relative to their scientific characters and habits. It may suffice to observe of the Tusseh insect, that it has been found in Bengal and the neighbouring provinces, from time immemorial, in such abundance as to have afforded the natives a large quantity of very durable coarse silk, which forms a cheap, light, and cool dress; that, when its larva approaches to its full size, it is too heavy to crawl in search of its food with its back up, and therefore traverses, suspended by the feet; and that, in its perfect state, it is destitute of a mouth, or any channel by which food can be received.

The Arrindy, or *Phalena Cynthia*, occurs in two of the interior districts of Bengal, and is cultivated in houses as the common silk-worm. As it feeds on the leaves of the *Palma Christi*,

*Christi*, Sir Wm. Jones mentions it under the denomination of *Phalena ricini*; an appellation which Dr. Roxburgh is unwilling to retain, lest it should be confounded with *Bombyn ricini* of Fabricius, which is a different insect. In its larva state, it is extremely voracious, devouring many times its own weight in the course of a single day. So very delicate is the silk which is obtained from this insect, that it cannot be winded off the cocoons, but is spun like cotton. It is then manufactured into a sort of coarse white cloth, which is extremely durable.

*Description of the British Lizards; and of a new British species of Viper.* By Revett Sheppard, A.B.F.L.S.—To the three species of British Lizards so imperfectly described by Pennant, Mr. Sheppard has added three more, two of which are non-descripts. The first of these he denominates *Lacerta OEdura*, or *swelled tailed Lizard*; the second he presumes to be the *L. anguiformis* of Ray; and to be often mistaken for a viper; and the third, he calls *L. maculata*, or *spotted Lizard*. The author's strictures on Mr. Pennant's remarks on the larvæ of Lizards are pertinent and ingenious.

Mr. S. next describes a beautiful species of *Coluber*, to which he gives the name of *ceruleus*, from the azure blue of its belly. 'This certainly deserves (he says) to be ranked as a distinct species full as much as *C. Prester*. When I killed the animal, I took down an account of the scuta and squamæ, which I have since lost. They differed in number from those both of *C. Berus* and *C. Prester*; but among the great number of snakes and vipers that I have killed and examined, I scarcely ever found two of the same species that had a like number of scuta and squamæ: a sufficient indication how imperfect a part of the specific character these form.'

Mr. S. is unaccountably silent concerning the particular places in which he found his additions to British zoology.

*Description of Bos Frontalis, a new Species, from India.* By Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq., F.R.S. V.P.L.S.—This non-descript species is a native of the mountainous tract of country which separates the province of Chittagong in Bengal from Arracan. Soon after the drawing was taken, the animal, which had been sent by the Marquis Wellesley to David Scott, Esq., died, to all appearance owing to the change of climate. A cow of the same species died on the passage.

*Description of the Esox Saurus.* By the Rev. Thomas Rackett, M.A. F.R.S. and L.S.—This laconic communication is chiefly valuable on account of the accurate figure which accompanies it, and which represents the fish in its natural size.

*Description of several Marine Animals found on the South coast of Devonshire.* By George Montagu, Esq, F.L.S.—In the prosecution of his testaceological inquiries, this indefatigable naturalist discovered a variety of animal productions which had escaped the observation of preceding faunists. Those which he has selected for the subject of the present paper he designates *Cancer rhomboidalis*, *C. maxillaris*, *C. phasma*, *C. palmatus*, *C. scorpioides*, *C. articulatus*, *Oniscus hirsutus*, *O. cylindraceus*, *Gordius marinus*, *G. annulatus*, *Sipunculus strombus*, *Laplysia viridis*, *Doris pinnatifida*, *D. cerulea*, *D. flava*, *D. marginata*, *D. maculata*, *Amphitrite volutacornis*, *Nereis iricolor*, *N. margarita*, *N. lineata*, *N. octentaculata*, and *Asterias brachiata*.

According to the best of Mr. M.'s observations, *Cancer linearis* and *atomus* of Linné are the same, and, most probably, synonymous with *phasma* here described.

Of *Gordius marinus*, it is observed that it is not uncommon on several parts of the south coast of Devonshire.

‘It is of so prodigious a length, that it is impossible to fix any bounds; some of the fishermen say thirty yards,—but perhaps as many feet is the utmost: those specimens which have come under our inspection did not appear to exceed twenty feet, and more commonly from eight to fourteen or fifteen.’—‘If the animal be wounded, or the body divided, small threads of milky appearance issue from the wound, and do not mix with the water without agitation.’—‘The expansion and contraction are so unlimited, that it is scarcely possible to ascertain the utmost length of this worm: one, which was esteemed to be about eight feet long, was put alive into spirits, and instantly contracted to about one foot, at the same time increasing double the bulk, which originally was about the diameter of a crow’s quill. In the vast exertion of the muscles, the animal is generally divided at those parts which had been twined into knots.

‘This worm is very difficult to preserve perfect without contraction; for, if suffered to die in its natural element, one part will decay, while the other is alive; and the addition of any thing offensive produces contraction; even fresh water.’

*Sipunculus strombus* is supposed to be peculiar to *Strombus pes pelagani*, which is rejected by the hermit crab, as an inconvenient dwelling.

*Laplysia viridis*, though destitute of any membranaceous plate or shield under the skin, on the back, approaches so nearly to *L. depilans* in its external form, that Mr. M. hesitates not to class it with that animal. He adds,

‘While we are on the subject of the *Laplysia depilans*, we cannot help remarking how strange it is that the poisonous touch and offensive smell which appear to have been the origin of its name, should be without reason handed down to posterity, and that such an opprobrium

probrium should have so long been fixed upon one of the most harmless and inoffensive of creatures.

‘ On the coast of Devonshire, we have had frequent opportunities of handling these animals with impunity: for they neither affect the hand nor the olfactory nerves, but are as destitute of smell as of any depilatory power.’

No method has yet been devised, for fixing the beautiful purple dye which is abundantly discharged from this animal.

The author’s description of *Amphitrite volutacornis* is well worthy of quotation:

‘ The length of this singular and beautiful animal is about five inches, and the breadth half an inch; near the head a little depressed, and somewhat smaller towards the posterior end, where it is more flattened, and terminates in a tongue-shaped point: the tentacula are more than an inch long, elegantly plumose and convoluted: the stem is furnished with long ciliated fibres on one side; and as it makes about three spiral turns, the fibres become equally extended in a spiral direction; the plumes on the lower part of the tentacula meet near the mouth, which is very little protruded; these are of a light yellow brown, banded and mottled with chesnut: behind the head a ruff or scalloped membranaceous reflected margin, composed of four parts or petals, which almost meet underneath, of a dark purple colour in the front, edged with white; pale beneath: scutellum composed of ten joints, with three rows of plates; those of the middle largest, and of a yellow colour; the sides purplish: the other part of the body above is formed of four series of plates or scales, with a slight sulcus down the middle of the back; the segments of this part are about eighty, of a dark purple brown colour; on each side is a row of tubercles, one at each annulation, and a small pencil of retractile bristles; those on the sides of the scutellum are most conspicuous: the plates or segments beneath are single.

‘ This elegant species of *Amphitrite* was taken by dredging for oysters, and was brought to us alive in sea water. In this situation an opportunity offered of examining the curious structure of its beautiful tentacula, which far exceeds the pencil of the artist. These are not in the least retractile, but are capable of more or less extension, by more or less contortion, and may possibly at times be thrown out at full length; but the animal never showed any such inclination after it was taken, though kept alive for several days, and when dead was more contorted than before. The fibres are sometimes laid close, at other times expanded at right angles, showing the columella or stalk.

‘ The animals of this genus are usually of a soft nature, and generally protect their tender bodies by a tubular case, into which they can wholly recede: this, on the contrary, by the firmness of its skin, seems to require no such artificial covering, and probably never prepares such a case.’

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‘ This, though somewhat similar to the *Amphitrite* that inhabits *Sabella penicillus*, the *Coralina Tubularia Melitensis* of Ellis, must not

The fossil productions called *pentacrimites*, *stone-lilies*, &c., which have so much puzzled mineralogists, are probably the remains of this species, or of some of its congeners.

*Descriptions of four new British Lichens.* By Dawson Turner, Esq., M.A. F.L.S.—The lichens here delineated in a very masterly style are named, *chrysocephalus*, *fuscellus*, *luteo-albus*, and *porriginosus*. The particulars, which discriminate each, are not susceptible of abridgment.

*Descriptions of some species of Carex from North America.* By Edward Rudge, Esq., F.L.S.—Mr. Rudge remarks that there is a striking dissimilarity between the American species of this genus and those of European growth. The six which he describes are, *ovata*, *tenuis*, *intumescens*, *folliculata*, *flexilis*, and *gigantea*. Except *folliculata*, they are all non-descriptors. It is to be regretted that the accounts are taken only from the dried plants.

*Remarks upon the Dillenian Herbarium.* By Dawson Turner, Esq., F.R.S. A.S. & L.S.—These remarks afford an excellent specimen of candid and acute botanical criticism. Mr. Turner's object was to unravel the confusion of synonymy which has arisen from differences of opinion as to the plants really designed by Dillenius. Though the author, and his friend Mr. Woods, have performed the task partially, they have done much, considering their limited opportunity, and have enabled future examiners to do more. 'Independent (he observes) of the inadequacy of our own abilities to the task, it would require at least a week of uninterrupted leisure to examine properly the Dillenian herbarium, and it was in our power to bestow but one day upon the investigation: this day Dr. Williams obligingly allowed to be both long and unbroken, but still it served us only to look through the *Conferve*, *Ulve*, *Lichens*, and *Hypna*, with some attention, and to take a hasty view of the remaining genera of Mosses, but not to open a single sheet of the *Jungermannie*.'

It is obvious that a long list of individual references and remarks, however creditable to the commentators, can neither be admitted into our extracts, nor reduced to a condensed form.

*Description of some fossil Shells found in Hampshire.* By William Pilkington, Esq., F.A.S. and L.S.—The species de-

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be confounded with it: the convoluted tentacula, doubly ciliated fibres, and very superior magnitude, are sufficient marks of distinction; besides which, the knots or joints in the long fibres of the tentacula of this are not to be found in the other.'

scribed

scribed are *Voluta Anglica*, *Buccinum defossum*, *Murex punctatus*, *M. asperi* (Brander) *varietas*, *M. interruptus*, *M. scopulorum*, *M. porrecti* (Brander) *varietas*, *M. nitidus*, *Turbo sulcatus*, and *Nerita Hantoniensis*.

*An historical Account of Testaceological Writers.* By William George Maton, M.D. F.R.S. & L.S. and the Rev. Thomas Rackett, M.A. F.R.S. & L.S.—A *Bibliotheca Testaceologica* has long been a desideratum in Natural History. The present article, though shortly sketched, evinces an extensive and discriminating acquaintance with the subject, and may, in course, be consulted with advantage. The first part exhibits an historical catalogue of authors in the order of chronology, with brief notices of their systems, or partial descriptions; and the second gives a methodical arrangement of their names and writings, according to the subjects of which they treat. The names of publishers of mere catalogues, or of such authors have touched on testaceous animals only incidentally, are purposely omitted. ‘If several authors of a higher order have not been inserted, it is either because they are not accessible to the generality of our countrymen, or because they have copied others too nearly to be allowed the merit of originality.’

We are happy to learn that the writers of this paper have been engaged for some years on the study of the *Testacea*, and in preparing a systematic catalogue and descriptions of such species as inhabit the British islands.

*An Illustration of the Grass called by Linneus Cornucopia alopecuroides.* By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S.—The learned President here furnishes the Society with a concise, but interesting, statement of the particulars which led him to the discovery, that the Grass in question is the *Phalaris atriculata* of Linné, which is itself a real *Alopecurus*.

*Description of such species of Chironia as grow wild at the Cape of Good Hope.* By Sir Charles Peter Thunberg, Knight of the Order of Wasa, Professor of Botany at Upsal, F.M. L.S.—These species are the *tetragona*, *nudi-caulis*, *frutescens*, *jasminoides*, *lychnoides*, *linoides*, & *baccifera*.

*Remarks on the generic characters of Mosses, and particularly of the genus Mnium.* By James Edward Smith, M.D. &c.—In the course of this elaborate investigation, Dr. Smith canvasses with singular acuteness the principles on which Dillenius instituted the Genus *Mnium*, the strange aberrations to which those principles and subsequent discoveries gave rise, and then the confirmation of the judgment of Dillenius, though on principles to which he was a stranger. The merits and defects of the Hed-

wigian school are nicely appreciated; and we perceive with what mature deliberation the writer has proceeded in constructing his arrangement of the British *musci*.

*Observations on the Zizania aquatica.* By Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq.—The seed of this plant, obtained from America, never grew, till Dr. Nooth, at the desire of Sir Joseph-Banks, sent them from the lakes of Canada, put up in jars of water. Owing to this precaution, they produced healthy plants, which ripened their seeds in autumn. ‘In a pond at Spring-Grove, Sir Joseph Banks has a great quantity of this plant, growing annually, ripening its seeds, and sowing itself round the edges; and I am persuaded that it might be sown with some advantage where no other grain will grow, in many shallow pieces of water in Great Britain and Ireland, especially in the latter country, where I have seen several extensive lakes which appear well suited for the purpose.’

*Observations on the Durion, Durio Zibethinus of Linneus.* By Mr. Charles König, F.L.S. The mis-statements and omissions of Rumphius and Linné, relative to this plant, are here corrected and supplied.

*Observations on some species of British Quadrupeds, Birds, and Fishes.* By George Montagu, Esq. F.L.S.—The subjects of these observations are, *Mus messorius* of Shaw, *Sorex fodiens*, *Emberiza Cirlus*, *Motacilla provincialis*, *Charadrius hiaticula*, *Larus ridibundus*, *Cepola rubescens*, *Sparus niger*, and *Cyclopterus bimaculatus*.

It appears that Mr. M. was acquainted with the harvest mouse, before it was indicated by Mr. White of Selborn; and that he has since found it in Gloucestershire, and in the south of Devonshire. The want of an opening in the nest is not peculiar to this species, since most others of the genus close the aperture every time they leave their young. Attempts to keep the harvest mouse alive, in confinement, have hitherto proved unsuccessful. It burrows in the ground during the cold season: but hundreds, taken out of oat-ricks in winter, have exhibited no symptoms of torpor.

A recently killed specimen of the water shrew was found in Devonshire, remote from water, and in one of the highest and most arid situations in the country.

The discovery of a nest of the Cirl Bunting, and the care of rearing the young in confinement, enabled the author to make some interesting additions to his remarks on this species, contained in his Ornithological Dictionary. The young are fond of insect food, particularly of grasshoppers, and prefer white

oats

oats and canary-seed to hard boiled egg and rice. The male survived the female some months, would take insects from the hand, and catch flies in the windows, but was excessively timid and shy of strangers. 'It particularly shewed more than usual abhorrence to any thing black, not suffering even those out of whose hand it would otherwise feed to approach its cage with a hat on, without violent efforts to avoid the displeasing object, by fluttering about in an extraordinary manner; and in this way it lost its life.' Its shrill and piercing song was so monotonous and incessant, as to be extremely disagreeable. The female uttered only a simple plaintive note.

Dartford warblers were observed in the southern parts of Devonshire from the 8th of September, 1802, till the latter end of January of the following year. Mr. M. presumes that they may breed in this country as they do in Provence, since it is difficult to reconcile their migration northwards in winter with the other parts of their history.

Additional reasons are here alleged in confirmation of the opinion, that the *Alexandrian* Plover of Linné, and the *Kentish* of Lewin, are only varieties of the ringed species.

In a critical discussion, which we cannot stay to detail, the author endeavours to shew, (and, we think, satisfactorily,) that the *black-headed Gull*, the *red-legged*, the *brown-headed*, and the *brown Gull* of the second Supplement to Latham's General Synopsis, are one and the same species; and that the *brown Tern* has been confounded with it. Much of the obscurity on this subject appears to have arisen from overlooking the changes of plumage to which these birds are liable, and which the author has watched with uncommon assiduity.

The specimen of *Cepola rubescens*, from which the description and figure were taken, was caught in Salcomb bay, on the 25th of February, 1803. Another was taken on the 25th of March.

The very rare *Sparus niger*, or toothed gilt-head, was taken alive in November 1799, in the inlet that runs up to King's bridge, on the south coast of Devon.

The bimaculated Sucker has been frequently taken by deep dredging at Torcross, in Devonshire.

*Biographical Memoirs of several Norwich Botanists, in a letter to Alexander MacLeay, Esq. Sec. L.S. By James Edward Smith, M.D. &c.*—These minutes, though much shorter than we could desire, are full of interest, and penned with affection and delicacy of feeling. It is justly conjectured that the taste for the cultivation of flowers, which still prevails in Norwich, was introduced from Flanders, along with the worsted manufacture, during the persecutions of Philip the Second. 'Such an innocent

cent luxury, and so pure a taste, were not unworthy of minds which had turned with disgust from the tyranny and foul corruption of their native country. Truth, virtuous liberty, and disinterested science, are congenial, and flourish under the influence of similar circumstances.' A few excellent practical botanists, mostly in the more humble walks of life, are mentioned with commendation : but their numbers have always been very inconsiderable, compared with the florists, who still abound among the journeymen weavers, and other persons employed in the manufactures. Among the gentlemen botanists of this busy city, we find Sir Thomas Browne, who first observed *Sal-sola fruticosa*, on the Norfolk coast, the Rev. Henry Bryant, Mr. Hugh Rose, and Mr. Pitchford.—The rest of the letter we shall give in the writer's own words :

' I can never forget the kind assistance I received from this worthy man [Mr. Rose] when, having always had a passion for plants, I became desirous, at the age of 18, of studying botany as a science. The only book I could then procure was Berkenhout, Hudson's *Flora* having become extremely scarce. I received Berkenhout on the 9th of January 1778, and on the 11th began, with infinite delight, to examine the *Ulex Europæus*, the only plant then in flower. I then first comprehended the nature of systematic arrangement and the Linnæan principles, little aware that at that instant the world was losing the great genius who was to be my future guide, for Linnæus died in the night of January 11th 1778. With Berkenhout, and a parcel of wild flowers in my hands, I had often recourse to Mr. Rose during the ensuing summer. But, alas ! in the following year a gutta serena deprived him of his sight. This affliction, so peculiarly severe to a naturalist, he bore with exemplary patience ; for though with the loss of his external visual organs he lost his darling amusement, none could ever derive more consolation than himself from looking within. During the few remaining years of Mr. Rose's life, his delight was to assist young people in their classical or botanical studies, and he was always attended by some one or other, eager to profit of his conversation. He had long formed the plan of a popular work on the uses of plants ; and though unable to execute his intention altogether himself, he suggested the scheme to Mr. Charles Bryant, brother to the gentleman above mentioned, an excellent and industrious practical botanist. This was the origin of the *Flora Dietetica*, published in 1783. It was dedicated to Mr. Crowe, who had for some years, as well as several other gentlemen of Norwich, embraced with ardour the study of British botany. The Rev. Mr. Bryant was by this time settled at his living of Heydon ; from whence he afterwards removed to Colby in Norfolk, where he died at an advanced age in 1799, having never experienced any diminution of his fondness for botanical pursuits. Mr. Hudson and Mr. Lightfoot were, as long as they lived, his constant correspondents. Mr. Charles Bryant died before his brother.

' Mr. Pitchford, therefore, was the only survivor of the original Linnæan school of Norwich. He had also been a frequent correspondent

pendent of the authors of the *Flora Anglica* and *Flora Scotica*. But though an admirer of Linnæus, he was always peculiarly partial to Ray; and though ever so well acquainted with a plant by its Linnæan name, he could never rest while any obscurity enveloped it in the works of Ray. The *Carices* and *Mentha* more particularly engaged Mr. Pitchford's attention; and it must be confessed the study of them on his plan, of scrutinizing synonyms without access to any old English herbarium, was not soon to be exhausted. No wonder, therefore, that his conversation and epistolary correspondence on these subjects found no end. Nothing, however, could be more candid and amicable than his discussions. In the last interview I had with him, he was particularly strenuous with me to separate the *Mentha hirsuta*, with capitate flowers, from the verticillate, *M. sativa*. I think it but just to record the opinion of so indefatigable a practical observer, though my own remains unshaken. As some years have now elapsed since the Linnean Society published my paper on Mints, I take this opportunity of observing, that subsequent experience has strongly confirmed the solidity of the characters taken from the pubescence of the calyx and flower-stalk, and I find botanists in general can now, easily enough, make out any mint that comes in their way. On this point, indeed, my late friend was sufficiently disposed to be partial to me, as he always was in every instance in which he could give me credit, or do me any service. A very few days after the above conversation,

"he gave  
His blessed part to Heav'n, and slept in peace.  
So may he rest! his faults lie gently on him!"

*A further account of the Bos Frontalis*, by Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq.—This species of cow, the *Gyall* of India, is peculiar to the eastern confines of the province of Chittagong, where it delights to run wild on the mountains, and browse in the deepest jungles. It is also reared as a domestic animal by the natives. In appearance, it somewhat resembles the wild buffalo. It lives to the age of from fifteen to twenty years, and loses its sight as it grows old.—The ingenious method of catching the wild Gyalls by decoy balls, composed of a particular kind of earth, salt, and cotton, is here detailed at length.

*Description of a large species of Rat, a native of the East Indies.* By Captain Thomas Hardwicke, F.L.S.—The animal in question is the *Mus Malabaricus* of Shaw's Zoology: but, as it is not peculiar to the coast of Malabar, and is the largest known species of the genus, Capt. H. prefers the specific denomination of *giganteus*. The female here described and figured weighed two pounds eleven ounces and a half: its total length, 26½ inches. The male is larger, and weighs upwards of three pounds. It is very mischievous and predacious. The bite of this animal is considered dangerous, and an instance of its effects came under my notice while at the military station of Futteghurgh,

Futtehghurgh, in the Dooab, where an European in the India Company's artillery died under a confirmed hydrophobia in about twelve days, after having been bitten by a rat. This opinion I rest upon the judgment of the medical gentleman who attended the unfortunate man subsequently to the accident.'

*Extracts from the Minute-Book of the Linnean Society.* Mr. Lambert presented some specimens of the *Agrastis linearis* of Koenig, Retzius, and Willdenow, the *Durva* of the Hindoos, and celebrated by the late Sir William Jones for the beauty of its flowers, and its sweetness as pasture. On comparing it with similar specimens in the Banksian Herbarium, Mr. L. found it to be *Panicum Dactylon*, Lin. As it grows only sparingly and imperfectly in Cornwall, he conjectures that it is not originally a native of England.

Mr. Templeton mentions that *Loxia falcistrata*, Lath. was shot near Belfast in the month of January 1802; that it was a female, and perfectly resembled the figure in Dixon's voyage to the north-west coast of America.

Sir Joseph Banks has presented to the Society the whole of his very valuable collection of insects.

'Read a letter from the President, stating a curious observation relative to the musical intervals in the notes of the Cuckoo, communicated by an eminent professor at Norwich. This gentleman has invariably found the Cuckoo to begin early in the season with the interval of a *minor third*. The bird then proceeds to a *major third*, next to a *fourth*, then a *fifth*; after which his voice breaks, without his ever attaining a *minor sixth*.'

Mr. Sowerby presented a sketch of the head of a new species of Cachelot, stranded in the county of Elgin. The whole animal was sixteen feet long. Mr. S. proposes that it may be named *Physeter bidens*.

A continuation of the catalogue of the Library of the Society, and a list of the donors of books, close this interesting volume. The whole is embellished with eighteen plates, illustrative of various objects described.

ART. II. *Componimenti Lirici de' più illustri poeti d'Italia scelti da T. J. Mathias.* 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Becket.

ART. III. *Commentary intorno all' Istoria della Poesia Italiana, ne quali si ragiona d'ogni genere e specie di quella, scritti da Gio. Mario Crescimbeni. Ripubblicati da T. J. Mathias.* 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Becket.

ART. IV. *Storia della Poesia Italiana, scritta da Girolamo Tiraboschi, tratta dalla sua grand' opera intitolata Storia Generale della Letteratura Italiana. Ripubblicata da T. J. Mathias.* 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. In Four Parts. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Becket.

ART. V. *Bacco in Toscana. Ditirambo di Francesco Redi; con note brevi scelte dell' autore.* Crown 8vo. pp. 124. 5s. Boards. Becket.

ART. VI. *L'Arte Poetica Italiana, in cinque canti, da Benedetto Menzini.* Crown 8vo. pp. 150. 5s. Boards. Becket.

ART. VII. *La Rivoluzione Francese, visione alla Dantesca in quattro canti, da Vincenzo Monti; l'anno 1793, in occasione della morte di Ugo Bass-villa.* Crown 8vo. pp. 104. 5s. Boards. Becket.

THE friends of polite literature need not to be informed with what enthusiasm and success Mr. Mathias has cultivated the study of the Italian language. We some time ago gave a short notice of his republication of Crescimbeni's history of the Arcadian Academy, \* as a specimen of the neat and handsome volumes which he has edited with so much diligence of revision, and elegance of taste. We shall now briefly advert to others of the series, in the order in which they stand in the preceding titles.

I. Of all the departments of Italian poetry, none is more voluminous than that which, by a loose application of the term, has been denominated *lyric*. Besides Dante, Petrarch, Tasso, and Ariosto, who all occasionally essayed their talents in this species of composition, multitudes, less known to fame, have limited their efforts to canzons, sonnets, and kindred forms of poetical effusion. These latter forms, however, such as the ode, hymn, canzonet, cantata, madrigal, &c. are not included in the present collection. For the sake of consistency, we could have wished, either that the title had been more qualified, or that the specimens had been of a more diversified complexion.

The *Canzones*, which are about one hundred in number, and which occupy nearly two volumes and a half, are extracted from the writings of Dante, Cino, Petrarch, Lorenzo de Medici,

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\* See Rev. for January last.

Poliziano, Ariosto, Bembo, Sannazzaro, Amalteo, della Casa, Paterno, Vittoria Colonna, Molza, Tansillo, Martelli, Tasso (Bernardo and Torquato), Celio Magno, Lemene, Maggi, Cotta, Casaregi, Manfredi, Rinaldi, Chiabrera, Filicaja, Testi, Venerosi, Bedori, Gozzi, Rossi, Zappi, Bruguères, Frugoni, Menzini, and Guidi.

The sonnets, which amount to upwards of two hundred, are from the pens of Dante, Cino, Petrarch, Perotti, Buonacorsi, Boiardo, Conti, Lorenzo de' Medici, Colonna, Sannazzaro, Bembo, Ariosto, Fracastoro, Tebaldeo, da L'Aquila, Cariteo, Amanio, Capello, Gamba, Tolomei, Alamanni, Guidiccione, Stampa, Rainieri, Molza, Bussi, Buonarroti, Varchi, della Casa, Caro, Castiglione, Tomitano, Salvago, the two Tassos, Paterno, Amalteo, Rota, Costanzo, Tarsia, Fiamma, Tansillo, Magno, Giustiniano, Marino, Baldi, Mozzarello, Lorenzini, Redi, Filicaja, Testi, Maggi, Menzini, Guidi, Zappi, Crescimbeni, Manfredi, Baruffaldi, Cotta, Spinola, Perotti, Preti, Passerini, Maffei, Morando, Ongaro, Petrocchi, Frugoni, Lazzarini, Casaregi, Morei, Stampiglia, Venerosi, Algarotti, and Metastasio.

From this enumeration, it will be obvious that the present collection is more curious and novel, than composed with much regard to the intrinsic merit of the contents. The quotations from Petrarch are purposely limited, because a selection of his Canzons and Sonnets were previously printed in a separate volume, under the title of *Rime Scelte di Francesco Petrarca* \*. Tasso and Ariosto are more advantageously known by their epic than by their lyric productions; and such particulars of their lives, as have been ascertained, have, on various occasions, been communicated to the public. Of most of the other poets, however, whose names we have mentioned, the history has been little diffused on the northern side of the Alps; and some short biographical and critical notices would, therefore, have formed a very desirable appendage to the specimens. We have likewise to remark that, from an extreme parsimony of marginal notes, many of the allusions must be wholly unintelligible to the bulk of readers.

In his introductory remarks, the editor has briefly appreciated the characters of Petrarch and Guidi, as lyric poets, and marked the discriminating style of each. Guidi is, moreover, honoured with a portrait, and a short biographical sketch—Mr. Mathias has not confined his exertions to Italian prose. His dedication to Dr. Mansel, Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, is composed, with apparent facility, in the form of an elegant can-

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\* See Rev. Vol. xxxvi, N. S. p. 96.

zon;—the Sonnets are introduced by one of his own;—and we find Gray's beautiful lines on the death of the Hon. R. West, rendered thus:

*‘ In van per me ride il nascente giorno,  
E'l Sole innalza i rossegianti rai,  
Sciolgon gli angelli in van pietosi lai,  
E'l suol rinverde in lieto manto adorno :  
Altri oggetti i' desio di giorno in giorno,  
Ed altre note, abi ! note no, ma guai ;  
Non giunge il mio martir tra' spirti gai ;  
Muor la gioja imperfetta a me d' intorno.  
Sorge l' Aurora in tanto annunziatrice  
Di nov' ufizj a' più felici cori ;  
Sparge i suoi beni il suol con larga mano ;  
Destan gli angelli lor vezzosi amori ;  
Io chiamo lui cui più sentir non lice,  
E piango più perchè lo piango in vano.'\**

Our limits preclude all critical examination of the canzoni and sonnets with which we are here presented. Among the former, those of Chiabrera, Filicaja, Testi, Celio Magno, and, above all, of Guidi, will chiefly attract the admiration of competent judges; while among the latter, Petrarch, Costanzo, Castiglione, Lazzarini, Rota, Passerini, Frugoni, &c. will, probably, claim a preference. We cannot, however, refrain from observing that many pieces of first rate merit have been overlooked or rejected, and several admitted that discover no pretensions to pre-eminence. At the same time, we are ignorant of any one selection which comprises so much of the lyric poetry of Italy within the compass of three pocket volumes.

II. The world is much indebted to the editor for superintending the publication of the second article, and rendering it accessible to the British scholar. The whole range of Italian criticism scarcely presents us with a more interesting historical treatise than Crescimbeni's *Istoria della volgar Poesia*, including the Commentaries, which are not the least valuable portion of the author's writings. Mr. Mathias acquaints us that he has made use of the Venice edition of 1731. Besides an introductory sonnet, and an address to the poetical and learned English reader, he has prefixed a general table of contents, the life of the author by the Abate Morei, and a catalogue of Crescimbeni's works.

It may humble the pride of learning to remark, that of this celebrated man little is now known that can interest or amuse the lovers of literary anecdote, or reward the curiosity of those who delight to contemplate the varied gradations of life and character. We only learn that Giovanni Mario Crescimbeni

was born of a noble family at Macerata, on the 9th of October 1663; that he studied for some time under the Jesuits; that he afterward applied, though with little steadiness or success, to the profession of law, under the direction of his uncle at Rome; that he finally gave his undivided attention to the belles lettres and the muses; that he contracted an intimate correspondence with several of the learned of his day; that he obtained ecclesiastical preferment from Clement XI.; that he was the founder and director of the Roman Society of Arcadia; that he published many works; that he had many friends, and some enemies; that his person was slender, his voice uncouth, and his temper, naturally irritable, subdued into gentleness by the virtue of self government;—and lastly, that he died, very generally regretted, on the 8th of March, 1728.

III. This account of Italian poetry is extracted from various parts of the large and popular work of Tiraboschi, intitled a *General History of Italian Literature*. The editor has followed the last Modena edition, begun in 1787, and completed in 1794.

The first volume opens with a handsome canzone, by way of dedication, to Mr. Roscoe: which truly classical effusion is followed, as in the preceding instance, by an address to the learned and poetical English reader. On this occasion, Mr. Mathias pleads the cause of his favourite language and poetry with as much zeal as discretion. It is not, however, without sincere concern that we are informed of the failure of a plan for publishing in London, in a neat and correct form, a series of the most celebrated Italian historians. Since the execution of such a scheme would have redounded to the national honour and advantage, we hope that, under more favourable circumstances, it may still be accomplished.

As a suitable introduction to these historical extracts, the learned editor has prefixed some account of the author's life and writings, in a letter published by the Abate Ciocchi; and from this narrative we have selected the particulars most worthy of notice.

*Girolamo Tiraboschi* was born of a respectable family at Bergamo, on the 28th December, 1731. Before he had completed his fifteenth year, he was admitted into the society of the Jesuits, to which he remained faithfully attached till the abolition of the order. The year of his appointment to the Professorship of Eloquence in the college of Brera, at Milan, is not mentioned: but it appears that he enjoyed this situation when he was promoted to the place of chief Librarian to the Duke of Modena. In 1766, he published his *Memorie degli Umiliati*, which stamped his character as a learned and ingenious critic.

Having removed to Modena, in June 1770, he was formally installed in his office ; and, at the opening of the new university of that place, he was, at the express desire of the sovereign, enrolled in the list of honorary professors.

During the first year of his residence in Modena, Tiraboschi compiled the first volume of his History of Italian Literature, a work of immense extent and research, which he completed in the course of eleven years. In these years, he likewise composed and published the life of St. Olympia, a letter concerning the essay of Lampillas, the life of Fulvio Testi, the first two volumes of the Modenese Library, and a great many fugitive articles inserted in the first twenty-three volumes of the Modena Journal. As a testimony of distinguished regard, Duke Hercules III. conferred on him the honours of knighthood; nominated him superintendant of the ducal library and gallery of medals; and, that he might prosecute his studies without interruption, exempted him from the personal attendance attached to his office. The city of Modena granted him, at the same time, a diploma of nobility, and accompanied this expression of their high respect with a handsome present of silver plate.

These rewards of persevering industry and eminent literary acquirements were not bestowed in vain; for the remaining eleven years of Tiraboschi's life gave birth to various writings. Among these we may mention the concluding five volumes of the Modenese Library, three volumes of the Historical Memoirs of Modena, various articles in the twenty additional volumes of the Modena Journal, a great many additions and corrections for the Encyclopædia printed at Padua, &c. During the execution of these multiplied performances, he revised the press and prepared the particular indexes with his own hand. His literary correspondence was also voluminous and extensive. Yet, in the midst of this accumulation of active and incessant pursuits, he found leisure to provide the library and collection entrusted to his care with the requisite additions, and to render them truly useful to the interests of learning and science.

On the 30th of May 1794, he was attacked by a violent disorder, which terminated fatally on the 3d of June, in the same year. His surviving friends and countrymen still revere, and deplore the loss of, so much application and talent, united to modest, gentle, and obliging manners, benevolence of heart, and unaffected piety.

Of the seven chapters of the present publication, the first treats of the origin of Provençal and Italian Poetry; the second, of Provençal Poetry from the year 1183 to 1309; the third,

of the early periods of Italian Poetry ; and the remaining four, of the same subject during the 14th, 15th, 16th, and 17th centuries. The author's accuracy and diligence of investigation are conspicuous throughout : but some of the most inviting parts of his subject are frequently frittered down into partial and minute details ; and the spirit of heaviness seems sometimes to have crept over his bulky lucubrations. A connected view of Italian Literature, sketched with a due regard to liberal criticism, and deducing the subject to the present times, is still a desideratum in the commonwealth of letters.

IV. In *Francesco Redi* we find the rare combination of the sober experimentalist, and the enthusiastic poet. He was born of a respectable family at Arezzo, on the 18th of February 1626. He studied grammar and rhetoric in the schools of the Jesuits at Florence, and the other sciences in the university of Pisa, where he took the degree of doctor in philosophy and physic. Ferdinand II, then Grand Duke of Tuscany, and a liberal patron of learning and the arts, appointed him his first physician ; an office which Redi discharged to the entire satisfaction of all the Ducal family. Indeed, the striking indications which he exhibited, even at an early age, of talent, genius, and observation, the suavity of his manners, and the correctness of his deportment, powerfully recommended him to the notice and protection of a court, which delighted to reward merit, and to deserve the esteem of the public. It appears that Redi, in his youth, composed many amorous and moral poems ; which, in maturer age, he committed to the flames. His leisure hours were chiefly divided between natural philosophy and the study of his native language. While he supplied Menage with a large portion of his Italian etymologies, he cherished the efforts of the celebrated Menzini, cultivated a literary correspondence with some of the first scholars in Europe, and attained to unexampled purity and elegance of style. His observations on vipers, and on the generation of insects, are obviously penned by the hand of a master ; and, when we reflect on the imperfect state of natural knowledge at the period at which he lived, they bespeak much originality of thought, accompanied by a degree of moderation and politeness which seldom characterized the controversial writings of the 17th century. His observations on several curious productions of India, and of animals which live within other animals, contain many interesting discoveries. His letters at the same time shew that he was not inattentive to the duties of his profession ; for they exhibit various cases of diseases and modes of treatment. For some time previous to his decease, this eminent philosopher and amiable man had

been subject to attacks of epilepsy, the last of which proved fatal on the morning of the first of March 1698.

To the poem with which we are here presented, the editor has prefixed a life of the author by Salvini. He has likewise extracted from Menzini's *Arte Poetica*, that animated passage which relates to dithyrambic poetry, and Cava's short dissertation on the same subject.

The *Bacco in Toscana* is still the most perfect specimen of this sort of poetical composition which modern Italy can boast; and it is a wonderful example of the ease and correctness to which its author had arrived in the structure and varied harmony of verse. It begins thus:

‘ *Dell’ Indico Oriente  
Domator glorioso il Dio del Vino  
Fermato avea l’ allegro suo soggiorno  
Ai colli Etruschi intorno;  
E colà dove Imperial Palagio  
L’ augusta fronte invero le nubi inalza,  
Su verdeggiante prato  
Con la vaga Arianna un dì sedea,  
E bevendo e cantando,  
Al bell’ idolo suo così dicea:’*

The poem then proceeds in a more animated and fervent style, till the bard's brain, heated by generous wines and noble phrenzy, begins to turn:

‘ *Quali strani capogiri  
D’ improvviso mi fan guerra?  
Parmi proprio che la terra  
Sotto i piè mi si raggiri,  
Ma se la terra comincia a tremare,  
E traballando minaccia disastri,  
Lascio la terra, mi salvo nel mare.  
Vara vara quella gondola  
Più capace, e ben fornita  
Ch’ è la nostra favorita.  
Su questa nave,  
Che sempre ha di cristallo.  
E par non parve  
Del mar craccioso il ballo,  
Io gir men voglio  
Per mio gentil diporto,  
Conforme io soglio  
Di Brindisi nel porto,  
Purchè sia carca  
Di brindisevol merce  
Questa mia barca.  
Su voghiamo,  
Navighiamo,*

*Navighiamo infino a Brindisi :*  
*Arianna, brindis, brindisi.*  
*Oh bell' andare*  
*Per barca in mare*  
*Verso la sera*  
*Di primavera !*  
*Venticelli, e fresche aurette*  
*Dispiegando ali d'argento,*  
*Sull' azzurro pavimento*  
*Tesson danze amorosette,*  
*E al mormorio de' tremuli cristalli*  
*Sfidano agnora i naviganti a i balli.*  
*Su voghiamo,*  
*Navighiamo,*  
*Navighiamo infino a Brindisi :*  
*Arianna, brindis, brindisi.'*

These short extracts may convey some idea of the spirit and execution of the whole. Mr. Mathias has retained as many of the notes as are requisite to explain the meaning of the text.

V. *Benedetto Menzini* was more favoured by the Muses, than by fortune. From the account of his life prefixed to the edition of his poems, published at Nice in 1782, it appears that he was born at Florence, on the 19th March 1646. In the course of his early studies, he was much indebted to the generous patronage of the Marquis Salviati and the celebrated Redi. The first publication which he acknowledged was that of his poems, printed in 1680. Being disappointed of college preferment at Pisa, he foolishly indulged in severe and personal satire. At Rome, his talents were recognized and honoured by the Cardinals Pignatelli and Azzolino, and by that excentric and illustrious patroness of genius, Christina of Sweden; but on her demise, he was again doomed to struggle with poverty. For a short time, he officiated as secretary to Cardinal Rugioski, primate of Poland. In 1695, he was nominated one of the canons of the church of St. Angelo in Peschiera, and afterward professor of rhetoric in the Sapienza of Rome. Evident symptoms of declining health induced him to retire to Albano, where he composed his Lamentations of Jeremiah, and his Tusculan Academy,—the latter somewhat in the style of Sannazzaro's Arcadia. On the 7th of September 1704, he died of a dropsy, in the 59th year of his age. His books and manuscripts were the only property which he had to bequeath. He was naturally cheerful, social, and generous: but vain, irritable, and addicted to gaming.

Of Menzini's various performances, that which is here selected displays considerable poetic merit, and a mind enriched with the elegant learning of Greece and Rome. It is composed

in the *terza rima*, and consists of five cantos. The principal subjects of the first are, the difficulty of the poetic art, the necessity of an intimate and idiomatic acquaintance with the language in which the poet writes, an imitation of the best models, grandeur and perspicuity of style, facility of versification, and the critical censure of friends.—In the second, we are presented with a comparison between Tasse and Ariosto, as epic poets; with considerations on unity of design, and expression of costume; and with the author's sentiments relative to dramatic poetry. In general, we admit the justness of his criticisms: but we cannot join with him in preferring versified to prose comedy.—The third canto commences with a spirited description of dithyrambic poetry; and it then passes to satire, elegy, and the pastoral and piscatorial eclogue. The fourth is devoted to sacred poetry and the sonnet, and the fifth commemorates poetic enthusiasm, with the advantages of correct judgment and harmony of numbers.

In this arrangement, it is easy to perceive a want of that *lucidus ordo*, and due connexion of parts, for which we especially look in a work essentially didactic, and involving some of the first principles of fine writing. In other respects, the poem will be found worthy of its author, and intitled to rank with the similar treatises of Aristotle and Horace, of Vida and Boileau.

We shall extract a few stanzas from the beginning of the fourth Canto:

\* *Al risonar della celeste lira*  
*Lieto risponde in armonia concorde*  
*Ogni pianeta, e intorno al sol s'aggira.*  
*Ab, menti umane! se non foste sorde*  
*Al dolce suon ch'ha di rapir costume,*  
*Non sarà 'l vostro oprar dal ciel discorde;*  
*Nè in questo basso e paludoso fiume*  
*V'immergereste, ma sareste in guisa*  
*D' aquila che alle sfere il volo assume.*  
*Guardate il cielo; ivi l'istoria è incisa*  
*Delle stupende maraviglie eterne,*  
*Dio le segna in quel libro, e le divisa;*  
*E se tanta bellezza ha nell' esterne*  
*Sembranze il ciel, quanto più grande e vaga*  
*Quella sarà ch'occhio mortal non scerne?*

Mr. Mathias has subjoined an elegant Italian critique on Lorenzo da Ponte's canzon on the death of the Emperor Joseph II. and the accession of Leopold II. The original, a copy of which accompanies the remarks, is certainly not destitute of merit, though we cannot praise it with all the warmth

of its partial English critic. The following lines are, perhaps, the most beautiful in the whole piece :

*Un atade novella  
Scendere si vedrà nel mondo tutto,  
E i Medicei tornar anni giocondi.  
Licenza a Dio rubella,  
E forsennato Ardir sarà distrutto,  
Che a senno suo, vorria le leggi e i mondi ;  
Spiriti leggiadri e di virtù fecondi  
Fioriranno a la toga, a l'armi, al trono ;  
E se lassù tal suono,  
Se la lieta novella ancor s'è intesa,  
La gran Teresa si rallegra, e dice :  
L'Austria mia sarà pur bella e felice.'*

VI. The name of *Nicolas Hugues de Basseville* may probably be in the recollection of several of our readers. He was the son of a dyer in Abbeville, and originally bred to the church, but afterward renounced all professional views, and went to Paris in quest of literary adventures. There he engaged to accompany two American young gentlemen of fortune on a tour through Germany, and obtained from them an annuity of 3000 livres. He next repaired to Holland, for the purpose of studying the principles of trade. Whether he prosecuted this laudable design with steadiness, and according to system, we have not ascertained : but the only public result of his inquiries was a poem on Commerce. He then published his Elements of Mythology, and a volume of miscellaneous poetry, both of which were favourably received. His History of the French Revolution, a work which he dedicated to his intimate friend the Marquis de la Fayette, breathes the sentiments of a staunch royalist : but it is probable that his subsequent intimacy with Biron, Brissot, and General Dumouriez, had produced a change in his political creed. It is at least known that, through the influence of Dumouriez, he was appointed secretary to the French legation at the court of Naples, and that his mission to Rome was not of the purest description. He found, however, that this venerable city no longer verified the saying of Jugurtha, or, to adopt his own expression, that she was *in-élevable*. Yet, instigated by the intemperate zeal of unprincipled demagogues, he dared openly to insult the majesty of the Prince and the dignity of the people, until, as he confessed with his departing breath, *he died the victim of a fool*.—This event, which happened on the 14th January, 1793, gave occasion to Monti's poem, which Mr. Mathias has republished. It doubtless displays fancy, and no ordinary acquaintance with the graces of Italian poetry. It exhibits, however, rather the measure

more than the genius and spirit of Dante. Several of the passages approach nearer to the manner of Tasso.—The following is at once spirited and elegant :

‘ *Già di sua veste rugiadosa e scura  
 Copria la Notte il mondo ; allor che diero  
 Quei duo le spalle alle Romulee mura ;  
 E nel levarsi a volo, ecco di Piero  
 Sull’ altissimo tempio alla lor vista  
 Un Cherubino minaccioso e fiero :  
 Un di quei sette che in argentea lista  
 Mirò fra i sette candelabri ardenti  
 Il rapito di Patmo Evangelista :  
 Rote di fiamme gli occhj rilucenti,  
 E cometa che morbi e sangue adduce  
 Parcan le chiome abbandonate ai venti ;  
 Di lugubre vermiglia orrida luce  
 Una spada brandia, che da lontano  
 Rompea la notte, e la vendea più truce ;  
 E scudo sostenea la manca mano  
 Grande corò, che da nemica offesa  
 Tutto copria coll’ ombra il Vaticano :’  
 &c.*

This, like the preceding article, is accompanied by explanatory notes ; in one of which, we observe a beautiful little ode, by the same hand, intitled ‘ *Invito d’ un Solitario ad un Cittadino,*’ which is now given in a correct form.

In taking leave of Mr. Mathias, we have only to remark that his admiration of Italian poetry occasionally outsteps discretion ; and that he seems not to be aware that, in the very finest pieces which can be quoted, much of the charm may be analysed into the euphony of the language. We mean not, however, to detract from the utility of his labours, nor to weaken the sense of obligation which the public, we trust, will long entertain of his editorial diligence and selection.

ART. VIII. *Harvest-Home* : consisting of Supplementary Gleanings, Original Dramas and Poems, Contributions of Literary Friends, and select Re publications, including Sympathy, a Poem, revised, corrected, and enlarged, from the eighth Edition. By Mr. Pratt. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips. 1805.

NOTWITHSTANDING Mr. Pratt’s endeavours to reconcile us to his singular title, we must beg leave to demur to its propriety. “ The cart is put before the horse,” when the housing of the crop is mentioned subsequently to the gleaner’s operations. It is indeed a fact that Mr. Pratt’s Gleanings preceded *his* Harvest ; and such being the case, we congratulate him

him on having safely housed the produce of his labours : but we still think that he might have given a better title to these supplementary volumes. We knew a learned gentleman, who called his common-place book his *Barn* ; and considering the nature of the publication before us, if a title allusive to rural affairs must be adopted, we should have advised it to have been denominated the *Barn*. Here the gleaner, with the fruits of his own genius and observation, has associated the contributions of friends ; and, to fill up the repository, he has added select republications. Thus the amount of the whole has swelled to a bulk sufficient to fill a literary store-house : but we question whether the magnitude of this second harvest will in every point of view be reputable to the gleaner. He will probably be accused of yielding too much to the spirit of book-making, and of being more solicitous to give quantity and ponderosity to his collection, than to winnow and compress it. Mr. Pratt is certainly too diffuse. In his narrative-canter, as the jockies would say, he does not sufficiently *get over the ground* ; his topics are sometimes quite wire-drawn ; and the laboured attempt to lengthen out the interest produces ennui. Occasionally, too, we encounter expressions which are novel, if not affected ; and words (such as *Intertwisture* and *obliviated*) which there is no authority to sanction. Nothing, however, of this kind, obscures from us Mr. Pratt's intrinsic and substantial merit. His heart is benevolent, and his efforts are uniformly directed to promote loving-kindness and virtue among men. His pages may instruct, but they cannot corrupt ; they may soften, but they will not seduce ; they may warn, but they will not mislead. Whatever be his route, he is employed in collecting something of '*heart and soul* ;' something for use or happiness in general society ; or for wise, interesting, and tender contemplation in the sweet hours of solitude ; and though he does not always write in the very best manner, he has the satisfaction of knowing that he has not written in vain.

These additional gleanings refer to what Mr. Pratt rather pompously terms the Hampshire and Warwickshire *Stations* ; and they exhibit pictures which stand strongly contrasted to each other, viz. of the scenery and state of society in the New Forest ; and of Birmingham and its manufacturers. Differing from the practice of the ordinary tourist, he often turns aside from the broad beaten path, to note the condition and to develop the virtues of humble life. With the inmates of the cottage, he solicits acquaintance ; and in one of his rambles, he wandered, " heaven-directed," to the door of a poor family, who have reason to rejoice at his feeling heart and descriptive pen. The account

account which he has given in a letter dated Woodlands, Oct. 9, 1804, of the Forder \* family, and of their little cottage, situated in a vale in the New Forest, called Morgan's Bottom, will be perused with interest by most readers; and it has given us peculiar gratification to hear that a lady of rank and fortune was so much affected by the narrative, that she employed the Gleaner to rescue honest Forder from his difficulties, and to make his pretty cottage the scene of content. By a small sum in the contemplation of opulence, a deserving family has thus been saved from misery and ruin; and by a slight sacrifice, perhaps, of fleeting pleasure, a source of substantial self congratulation has been opened. We have reason to believe that many of the industrious labourers are in the exact situation of this forest cottager, and, by a gradual accumulation of debt, (unavoidable with the poor in these trying times,) are on the brink of being torn from the humble dwellings which their own hands have built and decorated, to become burdens to the parish and to themselves; yet who, by the interference of timely benevolence, might be rendered comparatively independent and happy. We highly applaud that generosity which is employed 'in propping the falling cottage,' in preserving to virtuous indigence its home, and in continuing to poverty its well-earned comforts. For what a trifle can this effect be produced! Often, for 'half the sum which a man of fortune gives for a horse, or a woman of fashion for a trinket,' a labourer and all his little household might be saved from total ruin!—After having made these remarks, we feel it a kind of duty to yield to the curiosity which we may have excited in the reader, though we must confess that we began them with the wish of preventing the necessity of an extract:

'About three miles short of Downton, we arrive at Rudbridge-Common, midway on which your eye is attracted by a little nest of eots to the left, of which you only see the thatched roofs, and these are so encanopied by orchard and garden trees, that you have rather stolen glances than full views. Some discover themselves half covered by foliage, others shew only the gable end, and one or two are surrounded by verdure almost to the chimney tops.

'I had been nearly exhausted by the extent of heath-ground, which, to use my beloved Goldsmith's expressions, ever the happiest and the best, seemed.

"Immeasurably spread,"

and lengthened as I rode. I had more than once honestly confessed to my friend that I began to flag, and that my love and admiration of Nature was more powerful in me than the strength she allowed to explore her beauties. But the sudden prospect of these singularly-placed cottages, which rise on your view without the least preparation, gave me

\* Mis-printed *Fonder* in the book.

new life, and I willingly followed the lead of my friend, who was winding his way down the slope, that, in a few minutes, brought us to a nearer view of the spot: it increased in interest as we approached. The knot of building consisted of about twenty cottages, to each of which was attached a garden and orchard; but so absolutely placed in a verdant nook, out of the bustle of town, and even of the country, that nothing but a curious and inquisitive traveller would have deemed it worth while to turn his horse's head or his own towards Morgan's Vale or Bottom\*; at least, till attention was commanded by one particular building, situated on the brow of the slope. This, my friend joined me in pronouncing the very model of a true cottage, giving the full meaning of that modest word, and no more. It is equally distinct, on the one hand, from an air of meanness and poverty, and on the less pardonable one, of affected simplicity and pride abasing itself only to be exalted on the other. Simplicity seems to have been its architect, and Content its inmate: such, at least, were my ideas, on a first sight of the premises.

‘But I am sure you feel yourself sufficiently interested to take a nearer view. Imagine yourself, then, on the green summit, where it is placed, as it ought to be, from its superior beauty, above its fellows; yet, though it overlooks, it seems to smile on them all. Verdure, of different kind, and of unfading character, encompasses it round about. Each side is covered with laurels, that flourish even to the roof; and that roof is so well thatched, that not an irregular straw deforms its inviting softness. The centre is rounded into an arch of yew, which affords at once a porch and an alcove. The casements are of the true cottage size and construction: the body of the building is of the true cottage clay, of which, however, you only see small patches as if by stealth, through the interwisture of the laurels, *au travers*. A little garden decorates the front; a fertile slip of orchard-ground runs to some length on one side; there is a screen of mixed laurel and yew round the well, and a neatly compacted quickset is its fence. The whole has been gradually and almost imperceptibly borrowed, or, more true to speak, purloined from the common; as, indeed, has the entire cottagery, bit by bit, insomuch that we might fairly say, the peasants and the proprietors, like opposed armies, have disputed and maintained their ground inch by inch; and when any new territory, which they added to their castles, (cot and castle are the same things in England,) has been reclaimed by one party, the other has watched his opportunity to get it back with some advantages; till the right of possession, no longer contended for, is considered as a good, at least a sufficient title, and on such tenure enjoyed, if not admitted.

‘But our curiosity on the outside excited a no less degree of curiosity within. The inhabitants of the cottage now came into the garden. All females, and of all ages, from the grandam to the latest born. The master of the mansion was at his labours in the forest. Accept what remains, in dialogue.

“A very pleasant cottage you have here, my friends.”

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‘In forest-language, Vales are called Bottoms.’

“Yes,

"Yes, we have, Sir; *it stands so in the delight*," answered the mother of the group, whose name is *Forder*.

"Rather bleak in the winter, I should fear."

"Cold without, and warm within; and," standing so in the delight" we can, in goodly weather, get peeps at folk going to Downton, and so seeing company. In wintry time we can spy them passing as we sit in the cottage. The girls here run about the plain, and down into the bottom: but, for my part, I sometimes do not pass the wicket for half a year together."

"A sign of being happy at home, Mrs. Forder."

"A true sign, Sir, for I am. James Forder, my husband, did all of this green work with his own hands; and, indeed, with helping of neighbours below, now and then, made the whole cottage what you see it. Twenty-four years, and upwards, have we lived under its thatch; and, by giving us good seemings of substance, and where-withal to get on, has got us credit, at a pinch, oftimes. And many a day would these children have gone with next to nothing for their dinner, and with nothing altogether as to supper, but for the *good-looking* we have about us: for goodly seeming, in this way, Sir, gets trust. We *croach*, to be sure, a little on the common, and put fence a little forwarder; then every now and then 'tis pulled down: but John Forder *ups* with it again, so that the people grew tired at last: the hedge stands, and thus, by little and little, we get on."

"That's a good hearing, Mrs. Forder; and I dare say you are all of you living in a friendly way, in that nice nest of cottages below."

"Nothing to complain of, as to that; as neighbourly and ready to do for one another as any set of bodies any where. Fallings out, now and then, to be sure; but soon made up again; and that, I suppose, is the case every where, as well as in Morgan's Bottom. Things go cross and wrong all the world over, and why should not we have our share."

"This little gossip lasted long enough to bring many of the dwellers in the valley to their several peeping places, in their orchards or gardens, to see what could be passing on the hill. Two stranger gentlemen on horse back, in long parley at a cottage-gate, in such a place, is always a subject of wonderment; and, as country people, in secluded places, generally talk much louder than is necessary for mere hearing and understanding, scarcely any thing said at the threshold of one hut is a secret at another. Having, therefore, roused the spirit of the little neighbourhood, and gratified our own curiosity, we left the comfortable-looking people to go over again the subject with each other.

"On my return, however, from the fair, my fellow-traveller met my wish more than half way, to stop as we passed the plain, at the gate of the interesting cottage. The evening sun gave a softer gloss to the laurels, and made the deep verdure of the yew, twined round the casement, look less sombrous, while every pane in the windows sparkled in the western ray. The cottage-cat sat ruminating on the edge of the well; but the cottage-door, which I tried to open, was made fast. Presently, a man of athletic form, but somewhat bent by time and labour, came from the orchard-part of the premises, and respectfully bowed

bowed as he advanced to the gate. I related the adventure of the morning, of which I found him ignorant ; and he informed us, that his dame and family, old and young, were gone to the fair. We repeated our admiration of his cottage, and of his ingenuity in giving it so many attractions.

“ It may be best again to have recóurse to the colloquial style.

“ Yes, I did it up mostly after work-hours. Will you be pleased, gentlemen, to look within ?”

“ Strong and good, master Forder ; warm and snug.”

“ *Very* Sir ; and dry as a bone.”

“ And full of comforts, I see, both above and below. A good Hampshire sitch or two, and some well-looking barrels on their supporters.”

“ Yes, thank God, Sir, not amiss now. A good wife as ever a man had, and children likewise, and not much taxing. But I doubt I must let my cottage go, after all. Some hard years,—children growing up, and who want more than they did.”

“ Sell your cottage !”

“ It is a little in mortgage already. I could not help it. The gentleman at the red house lent twenty pounds on it, and very kindly gave hopes I might keep it in my own hands. The miller let me have another ten. So I kept rubbing on ; but I was forced to go to my friends and tell them, it did not signify trying, for I found I could not pay ; therefore thought I had better give up. But the miller was against this ; bid me not be down-hearted, but consider I had children who might, by and by, help me out, as I had helped them, and would not *hear* of my selling my cottage outright. But I doubt I must, after all. I shall feel sad and strange upon it ; for I built and smartned it myself ; we have all got used to it ; and I can't expect, at any time, ever to get such another.”

“ That, thought I, you never can, poor fellow, for I do not believe there is, at all points, such another in England. I hastily put into the old man's hands the trifling fairings I had purchased for the younger children ; my friend gave something more worthy of his acceptance : and we left the spot with less cheerful feelings than we had sought it.

“ Just as we were losing sight of the cottage, and its connecting huts, I turned my head involuntarily. The evening continued lovely, beyond the power of describing its variety of charms. There was certainly nothing in the imagery of the heavens above, or of the earth below, to render the prospect less exhilarating. The parting beams of the sun were yet playing on the cottage of laurels and yew ; and the summits of the roofs of the delightful habitations beneath were burnished with a ray yet more golden ; the surrounding foliage partook of the tinge ; and the intermediate heath-ground was rich in those colourings which, when the most magnificent orb of heaven is about to set, paints every object so exquisitely. With all this, however, there was an intercepting heavy cloud cast between the corporeal and the mental eye, which made the whole scene appear the reverse of what it had been.

We

'We recrossed the barren part of the way with unusual speed, and in unwonted silence. At length, I could not help observing to my friend, that the idea of the poor woodman's necessity to sell his little paradise absolutely haunted me! Yielding myself to this emotion, I exclaimed, "How many hundreds will this very night throw away, in one idleness or another, partly for want of better objects being within view, more than enough to redeem that honest creature's morsel of property,—for an honest creature I find he is,—and thereby place his cottage, and all it inherits, on the most solid foundation. Nay, how many are there who, if they were made acquainted with the circumstances, and were convinced of the great good which might be done with a very little, would be happy to direct the streams of their bounty into so proper a channel. But, I will admit that the account has an air of romance; and, therefore, many will conclude that points not naturally attached to the objects have been strained into service, purposely to increase the interest of the narrative. Of making such events, however unductile, bend to the purpose predetermined on, certain readers are too apt to accuse authors; and nothing is more common than to discredit what we are resolved to think exaggerated. In what a variety of instances could I exemplify this opinion, and prove its fallacy. But, keeping to the objects just delineated, I have a stronger motive than my own justification for wishing such as are going into this tract of country to make a visit to John Fonder and his family; and if they find him and his, as they undoubtedly will do, what I have painted them, O what soul-exhilarating opportunity will they have to save the labourer and all his little household, by appropriating to his redemption half the sum a man of fortune gives for a horse, or a woman of fashion for a trinket. And if, on the contrary, they do not find the people, whose cause I advocate, deserving rescue,—deserving a prop to the falling cottage, they will, at any rate, be gratified by seeing a most exquisite groupe of the best and sweetest objects nature has to produce; and, inasmuch as the facts fall short of the description, will have sufficient reason to accuse the describer.'

Those who have not an opportunity of following the gleaner's map to Morgan's Bottom may learn, from this picture, that there is a quantity of modest misery which must be sought in order to be found; and that the indolent bounty of many well-meaning Christians, which is fruitlessly bestowed on wandering mendicants, would be more judiciously applied if it were given to those poor who struggle hard to live at home.

We must pass over Mr. Pratt's particulars respecting Southampton, his sketches of the landscape and history of the New Forest, as well as his picture of the Game-keeper of Cranbourne-chace, with three *glories*, viz. his wife, his dog Bouncer, and his horse Maggot, and shift the scene from the wilds of nature to the populous town; exchanging wood nymphs for the "Queen of the sounding Anvil," and following manufacturers instead of beasts of the chace. In other words, we must turn to the account.

account of Birmingham, which is the prominent figure on the canvas representing the Warwickshire Station. In his delineations of this department, the gleaner has been assisted by the communications of a sensible correspondent, Mr. Morfitt: but he has not been so much seduced by his flattering representations, as to omit to develop the pernicious influence of manufactures on the habits and morals of the people. Birmingham, as the "grand toy-shop of Europe," (as Mr. Burke termed it,) affords numerous objects highly amusing to the traveller; and, as far as the effects of human contrivance and skill are concerned, extremely gratifying to the philosopher: but, in the eye of the ethical inquirer, the splendid toys of Birmingham will lose much of their attractive lustre. It is perhaps a fact that, 'on the surface of the globe, a spot does not exist of equal dimensions, which exhibits so much ingenuity both of design and execution, as the town of Birmingham; and it is for the benefit of the public to know that many articles which are sold in London as *town-made*, are truly of Birmingham manufacture.' Our country readers, in the month of September, will naturally think of their fowling-pieces: but after having given a high price for them as *town-made*, they may not be best pleased with the light which is here *flash'd* on the subject:

'It may be proper to dissipate the public prejudices respecting guns, especially fowling-pieces. Those who make fire-arms for government of the best quality, may be rationally supposed to excel in guns of all descriptions; and this is really the case, though many people imagine that a Birmingham following-piece will not shoot, and therefore it will not sell as well as one made in London. But what will these wise-acres say to the established fact, that the barrels and locks of most of the guns, and very many of the guns themselves that bear the London mark, are made in Birmingham? Disregarding the common adage, that "practice makes perfect," and seduced by "the whistling of a name," they fondly fancy the best things to be those which fetch the best price, and are fabricated in the greatest town. Be it known unto all men, by these presents, that guns, with the best stub and twisted barrels, eclipsing the formerly-famous barrels of Spain, the best skeleton locks, the best patent breeches, gold touch-holes, &c. are made here for one-half, nay, one-third of the price which they bring in the metropolis; and yet a person unacquainted with the secret would suppose that Birmingham never produced a single fowling-piece; for our gun-makers have the policy to use the superscription of London.'

To this hint to sportsmen, is subjoined an account of a cheap manufacture of guns, which are designed not to kill birds, but to be exchanged for men:

'You

'You will smile when I inform you that guns, aye, and good-looking ones too, are made here at 7s. 6d. each. These, though formidable in appearance, have two *small* defects; the first is, that not being bored, except about an inch or two from the muzzle, they cannot be supposed to shoot very true; and the second is, that, not being *proved*, they cannot shoot at all. I beg pardon; they certainly undergo some sort of proof, but not by *powder*, (for that would be too rough usage,) but by *water*, which, if they are capable of holding, without permitting it to ooze through their pores, they are sufficiently qualified to discharge their duty; which is not to shed the blood of man or beast, but to decorate the habitation of some negro chieftain. Yet these instruments, though harmless and innocent, (except to the luckless wight who should load and fire them,) would be considered as guilty by the friends of humanity, as they are indubitably employed in the nefarious African traffic, and bartered for human flesh and blood.'

The catalogue of the Birmingham manufactures includes, taking them alphabetically,

'Awl-blade-makers, bellows-makers, brass and cock founders, brush-makers, buckle-makers, button makers, candlestick makers, chafe-makers, cutlers, file-makers, gimblet makers, gun and pistol makers, japanners, jewellers, iron-founders, lock makers, opticians and spectacle-makers, platers, pocket-book makers, saw and edge-tool-makers, scale and steel-yard makers, *jobbing smiths*, as they are called *here*, and white-smiths elsewhere—a business of vast importance, with a paltry name, as they make engines and tools for the manufacturers: souffler-makers, spoon-makers, spur-makers, thimble-makers, thread and wick-yard makers, turners, watch-chain and toy makers, steel man-trap-makers, fox-traps, rat-traps, and wooden mouse-trap-makers, &c. &c.'

Mr. Pratt's display of the wonders of art, in which the Soho Manufactory obtains ample notice, is closed by a sketch of the moral, personal, and domestic state of the artisans of Birmingham. Mr. P. has entered fully into this part of his subject, and his reflections are too judicious to be entirely omitted:

'Little does the purchaser of a Birmingham toy suppose how much of virtue and of vice is attached to its production, before it comes into his possession'. Nor, in the aggregate, does it seem at

'On this occasion, I am forced, by a stern duty, to forego my usual propensity to choose only the lucid paths, and to go into the depths of darkness. I shall be constrained, in some instances, to look at a vast proportion of the people of Birmingham, in their personal and domestic situation, with a different eye from that with which they have been viewed by my candid and liberal correspondent, Mr. Morfitt. "I think," observes another contributing friend, "when the Gleaner is compelled to look at *Human Nature's* *unlustrous leg*, as described in Franklin's Apologue, her cloven foot must come out; especially when he enters on the moral and social state of artisans."

all necessary for him to be apprised of this. It is, individually speaking enough for him to be attracted by the article, to praise its workmanship, and to place it amongst the curiosities of his cabinet. The same remark applies to the purchaser of a suit of ribands, at Coventry; a set of China, at Worcester; and a piece of cotton or muslin, at Manchester.

Parties visiting a manufactory, at either of the above towns, are so engaged in particular inquiry or inspection, or so absorbed in general admiration, that they have neither power nor inclination to go into the detail of political or moral effects. They observe every eye intent, and every hand busy, on its appropriate object: they see the most exact order, and a simplicity of arrangement in the most complex employments: and they view the wonderful processess of a pin, a button, a skein of thread or of silk, from its dark and rude state of the raw material to its ultimate polish and perfection: they look, with almost a religious wonder, at the progressions of these different pieces of workmanship, softening and refining, as they are passed from one set of artificers to another, till they behold shape, symmetry, order, beauty, and use: the magic increases, and the charm strengthens at every step, till, in the end a new and fair creation stands displayed before their eyes. Having gained this point, they retire well gratified; and the impression left on their minds is very seldom diminished by any of those less pleasing researches, which lie remote from these shew-shops, or warehouses.

It is reserved for other examiners to follow the artisan, from the spindle, the wheel, and the shuttle; from the anvil, the hammer, and the forge; from the compass and the rule; the varnish and the painting pot, to his places of retirement and vacation, to his house, his lodging, his public meetings, and his private haunts. It is the business of a philosophical observer to leave the scene of art with the artisan, and with silent but with serious steps, whatever be the age, or the sex, to pursue the artisan to his last retreats, so far as they can be penetrated, or explored, thence to look at him as a citizen, a neighbour, a friend, a servant, or a wife; a husband, child, parent, and human being. The accessible manufactory is but a public exhibition of its local inhabitants, where laws and duties are obeyed or enforced. But, to obtain an estimate of conduct, character, happiness, or misery, of those inhabitants, must be exhibited at their several homes, or in their desertions from home.

And, alas! dear friend, it is then that the talisman is so often dissolved, the spell broken, and the well ordered artificial creation, which discipline, policy, and necessity, have raised around a character, are thrown again into anarchy. Then, too, it is, not only in the workshop of the artisan and toy-shop of the tradesman, but in the parlour and the drawing room of the more splendid children of fortune, that the fair and polished fabrics of art and imagination fall down, and leave nothing but a wreck behind.

The author of the "History of Whalley" has pronounced with dreadful energy, "That in great manufactories, human corruption, accumulated in large masses, seems to undergo a kind of fermentation, which sublimises it to a degree of malignity not to be exceeded out of Hell."

The second volume contains three dramas, the first intitled *Hail Fellow! Well met*, in five acts, intended to expose the absurdity and impossibility of the French system, and said to have been performed some years ago on the Continent with universal applause: but we are not told on what part of the Continent. We conclude that it must have been curtailed in the representation, for it now occupies more than 200 pages.—The next piece is intitled *Love's Trials, or the Triumph of Constancy*, a Comic Opera, the chief plot of which is formed on the antient ballad of the "Nut-brown Maid;" with which is interwoven an under-plot taken from the ballad of "Argente and Curan," published in the "Relics of Antient Poetry." The third drama is called *Fire and Frost*, and is said to be written partly on the model of the laugh-and-be-merry, hurry-scurry, slap-dash, and, it might properly enough be added, helter-skelter, harum-scarum kind of farce-and-pantomime comedy, which has been so much the *rage* (perhaps RAVING would be a more appropriate word), and partly in the style of the old school of the English theatre.' We shall offer no strictures on any of these productions, but must hasten to the Third Volume, in which the gleaner amasses the contributions of numerous poetical friends; preceded by Original Poems, and followed by some productions of his muse, which, though not original, are given with revisions and improvements. At the head of this ponderous collection, is a poem by Mr. Pratt, intitled *the Physician*; a subject which may be in some measure new to poetry, but which has not inspired him with any new poetic glow. The verse, though it celebrates Apollo's art, wants Apollo's strength and fire; and we suspect that the physicians who are enumerated in the following passage will not be so grateful for Mr. Pratt's compliment, as they would have been if his numbers had been finished with more care:

' Say, who like him, (*i. e.* the Physician), when at the bed  
Where anguish lays the proud one's head,  
Can urge him to unlock his breast,  
And make Humility a guest?  
Or bid the sinner, as he lies,  
Woo sweet Repentance e'er he dies?  
Or teach the miser, robb'd of health,  
The idle impotence of wealth?  
Or the half-ruin'd spendthrift show  
He still is rich, who will bestow  
On pleasure less, on virtue more,  
And gain the blessing of the poor;  
Here TURTON's maxims, MILLMAN's rules,  
Outpreach the wisdom of the schools;

And FARQUHAR, when the hand he holds,  
 And the dread line of life unfolds,  
 The hist'ry of the pulse records  
 In a few glad or mournful words;  
 And LETTSOM whispering in the ear,  
 Reviving hope or fixing fear —  
 The fear that bids the mind prepare  
 The pang of parting life to bear!  
 And REYNOLDS, when his eyes foretell  
 The knolling of the funeral bell. . . .  
 And BREE, while the obstructed breath  
 Seems lab'ring at the gasp of death,  
 And the deep heaving of the sigh  
 Denotes the fierce convulsion nigh;  
 When BREE exerts his magic power  
 O'er Asthma dire at such an hour;  
 The renovating breath to give,  
 And the life-weary wretch relieve. . . .  
 These stronger morals can impart,  
 And fix them deeper in the heart,  
 Than judge or bishop e'er attain,  
 Or from the bar or pulpit's strain.'

\* Medic' is used more than once for *medical*; and *sat* and *fate*, and *phrase* and *pace*, are employed as rhimes.

It would occupy considerable space even to transcribe the titles of the poems of the Gleaner in this collection; and we must restrict our farther notice 'to *Mum's Cot*, written while on a visit to Mr. and Mrs. Brimyard \* at Woodlands, in the New Forest, on the author's beginning to recover from a severe indisposition.' Here Mr. Pratt, inspired by the hospitality of his kind host and hostess, and exhilarated by the refreshing gales of the Forest, so pleasantly describes his visit to Woodlands, that we should not be displeased if Mr. and Mrs. Brimyard would open the door of *Mum's Cot* not only to Bards but to Reviewers; who are sometimes much in want of fresh air and wholesome exercise, and would gladly exchange a score of dull books for a trot on a forest poney. The poet here appreciates matters with *reason*, as well as *rhime*, and seems to know "what's what."

' Now, as to Helicon's proud Mount,  
 Of which the Poets make account,  
 And their far-fam'd Castalian stream,  
 They're both skim-milk to Forest cream;  
 Yet glassy brook and purling rill  
 I wish of my acquaintance still;  
 And, when well mix'd with malt and hop,  
 My Verse shall celebrate each drop;

---

\* Who lately kept the *Dolphins* at Southampton.

And for their gay Parnassian Steed,  
 Give me a pad of Forest breed,  
 Just such a nag as here I stride,  
 When for an appetite I ride,  
 Aye, and the thing I ride for *get*,  
 For both of us return sharp set ;  
 And as he nimbly trots along,  
 Shows me the theme and aids the song,  
 Where yellow furze and purple heath,  
 And many a flow'et peeps beneath,  
 Or takes me to the bower or cot,  
 And lets me draw them on the spot.

- ' So, in few words, my Lady Muse,  
 If to assist me you refuse,  
 Or think to keep me poor and pale,  
 Henceforth my Nectar shall be Ale ;  
 My Inspiration shall be Wine,  
 One Forest Brimmer's worth the Nine !  
 And if I needs must run the course,  
 It shall be on — MY HOBBY HORSE !'

The contributions are from H. J. Pye, Esq., Miss Pye. the Rev. Dr. Mavor, Charles James, Esq., Rev. Dr. \*\*\*\*, John Taylor, Esq., R. C. Dallas, Esq., A Sybil, Dr. Wolcot, Mr. Hutton, An Invisible, A Lady, Mr. Meyler, J. Morfitt, Esq., Rev. Philip Parsons, John Bullar, jun. &c. In this collection, many pleasing effusions will be found : but we must abstain from copying a single poem.

An examination of Mr. Pratt's select republications will not be required of us. The poem on *Sympathy* is not only improved, but is now, for the first time, printed with notes and illustrations.

Some laughable literal errors occur in the first volume ; as *Siste Veaton*, for *Viator* ; *abeste profacie*, for *profani* ; and *civilis querus* for *quercus* ; which are imputable (we are assured) to the compositor.

Whatever may be the judgment of severe critics respecting the merit of Mr. Pratt as an author, he appears by his benevolent and well intentioned writings to have procured a host of friends ; and, as the reading of the ' Poet's Cottage ' procured him from a generous stranger the offer of a piece of ground, on which he might build the cottage which he has described, we shall take our leave with hoping that his former Gleanings, with the produce of his literary *Barn*, will afford him ample means of realizing his views ; and that, for the remainder of life, he may sing " Content in a Cottage, and envy to no man."

ART. IX. *Ode Græca Premio dignata, quod donavit Academiæ Cantabrigiensi Vir Reverendus Claudius Buchanan, A. B. Coll. Regiæ Cantab. et Vice-Præpositus Collegii Bengalensis in India Orientali. Auctore Georgio Pryme, A. B. Trin. Coll. Cantabr. 4to. 18. Cadell and Davies. 1804.*

ART. X. *Ode præmio à Reverendo Viro, Claudio Buchanan, S. T. P. Etonensibus præposito, dignata. Auctore T. Rennell, Coll. Reg. Eton Alumna. 4to. 18. Payne and Mackinlay. 1804.*

WE place these two odes together, on account of the similarity of their nature, and of the circumstances in which they have originated. They will not, however, detain us long in making our report of them; and we shall speak of them separately, in the order which we have assigned to their titles.

#### PRYME.

The ode, which is the production of this gentleman, contains several spirited stanzas; and though there are passages to which we could object, and others which are obscure, it is on the whole a creditable performance.—It is not allowed us to know who were Mr. Pryme's opponents, nor what were the productions which were judged inferior to the Ode before us: but its general merit induces us to think that it might not be undeserving of Mr. Buchanan's Prize, whoever were the competitors. It is written in the common Greek Sapphic measure; which has not been happily selected for such a subject,—*ὦς γένεσθαι*. Whether Mr. Buchanan meant that the ode should allude to Creation, and describe the moment in which

“ Light

Ethereal, first things, quintessence pure,  
Sprung from the deep;—and from her native East  
To journey through the airy gloom began,”

is to us doubtful. We should have supposed that he intended the prominent topic to be mental “*lightness from darkness—divided*,” by the foundation and establishment of a College at Bengal.

#### RENNELL.

The subject of Mr. Rennell's Ode, and the metre, are the same with those of Mr. Pryme's composition. It was also produced in consequence of the prize which Mr. Buchanan offered to the younger Students at our Universities, and to the senior Boys at Eton College.

From a scholar of Dr. Goodall, and a son of the Master of the Temple, much must be expected, even at an early age.  
On

On the present occasion, the hopes of friends were sanguine, as we have been informed; and those who peruse young Rennell's Ode will not find that they were cherished in vain. It must be mentioned, however, that there are some obscurities, which ought to have been avoided.

We have heard it observed in conversation, that the able pen of the Parent had been employed in the service of the youthful Bard. The charge was very malevolent, and was not proved; and though it is natural and proper, that a father should point out what he might see wrong in the composition of a son, yet a wise man would not readily trick out his offspring in borrowed plumage; which could only in future become the cause of disappointment and disgrace to both parties. The true scholar, however,—and it is not said to lessen the reputation of the author,—needs only read the present verses, to feel persuaded that the composition received little correction from the pen of the learned Dr. Rennell.

We close this short article with recommending the author to avoid, in future, the gaping *Hiatus*, which he has so frequently allowed to destroy the terseness and beauty of his verses.

ART. XI. *Poema, Numismate annuo dignatum, et in Curia Cantabrigiensi recitatum, A.D. 1805. Auctore Gul. Edv. Pretyman Tomline, Trin. Coll. Printed at Cambridge.*

THIS ode has a higher claim to the praise of perspicuity, than either Mr. Pryme's or Mr. Rennell's composition, on which our sentence has just been passed. In point of correctness, also, it is not inferior; and when it is considered as a *poetical* production, it rises much above them. The subject is the death of the lamented Duke d'Enghien; and the plaintive strains of the young Poet \* are well adapted to the lyre of Sappho. It was written to gain one of the three prizes which were left to the University of Cambridge, about thirty years ago, by the late Sir W. Browne, formerly President of the College of Physicians. The first premium is for the best Ode in Greek Sapphics: the second, for the best Latin Ode; and the third, for the best Epigrams. The candidates must be Under-Graduates;

\* The author, Mr. Tomline, we understand to be the son of that able mathematician and erudite prelate, the Bishop of Lincoln.—With respect to compositions from the learned Sons of learned Fathers, it is unnecessary to repeat what was observed in the review of Mr. Rennell's Ode.

and the subject is to be proposed annually by the Vice-Chancellor.

There seems a strange impropriety in thus fixing the *metre* of the Greek composition, without regarding the *subject*, in the slightest degree. Is every possible topic suited to Sappho's hendecasyllabics; or must the Vice-Chancellor select for the young Academicians such as may be proper for this plaintive and amatory measure? Such Sappho appears to have deemed it: Sappho, who invented it, or at least was the first who used it to any great extent.

Ἄλλ' ἐν γὰρ αὐτῇ καὶ ἐπίσταται βροτῶι πέποιεν.

Rhes.

Sir William might possess physical skill, and certainly had great good humour: but for his learning and literary judgment, we shall not stand forwards as champions. When the *Devil on two Sticks* first appeared at the Little Theatre in the Haymarket, Mr. Foote imitied, with great success, this very identical knight, as the *Prases* in his mock Warwick Lane council.—The imitation was striking: but there was a deficiency, which the true President was the first in discovering. Sir William always wore a muff, and Mr. Foote appeared destitute of this decoration. The President therefore immediately sent his own muff to our English Aristophanes, in order that, when he next played the part, his dress might be complete!

Sir William's knowledge of Greek Poetry was not great, though he was fond of writing English doggerel verses; and his taste was more limited than his reading.—As to the Latin Ode, the youthful Bard is merely confined to the Lyric metre of Horace. This restriction may be tolerated; though it is an unnecessary if not a hard restriction. Every writer ought to know his own powers best; and, when a subject is proposed, if he has read to solid purpose, he will soon adopt a metre which may prove his good taste, and will be commensurate to his abilities.—But to the Ode before us.

The author of it, Mr. Tomline, if our memory fails us not, gained Sir William Browne's Prize last year, by his Greek ode. That composition we recollect to have seen: but, as critics, even out of their magisterial chair, cannot close their eyes, nor shut their ears,—such a Syren is the art which they follow,—we observed some mistakes in it, which rendered it very inferior to the present Ode. In both, however, we remark a degree of perspicuity and a facility of style, which are in general hopelessly sought in compositions of this nature.

It is now incumbent on us to mention that in all these odes, the metrical canon, which was first laid down and originally established

established in the Monthly Review for January \* 1798, has not been infringed. This rule stated that, in Greek or Latin Sapphics, there could be no *divisio vocis*, except at the end of the third line of the stanza; and there one part of the word might close the third, and the remainder begin the fourth verse, or *adonic*.—To this canon, may not a slight addition with propriety be added?

“The syllable of the divided word, which (syllable) closes the third verse of the Sapphic stanza, may be long or short.”

In Mr. Tomline's Ode, we find one instance of a short syllable, and two of a long syllable, in this place.

In Mr. Rennell's poem, six short, and one long; and in Mr. Pryme's, five short, and two long syllables.

This minuteness arises from the propriety of a short syllable in this place having been doubted: yet by those who are well versed in the Lyric poetry of the Greeks, such a doubt could not have been started. To those who hesitate, let Sappho speak:

Πύνα διῶνις κ' ἐπ' ἀπ' ὤραν ὠθί-  
ρος διὰ μέσσω.

As to the Romans, Catullus ruggedly, indeed, writes, xi. 11.

*Gallicum Rhenum, horribilesque et ultimi—  
mosque Britannos.*

The former of these two examples may defend these young authors from the lash of intemperate criticism. At the same time, we readily allow that, to English hearers and readers, the long syllable must appear preferable; and Mr. Tomline's attention to this point shews taste and discretion.

It is to be regretted that our Poet has introduced the *Hiatus* of Homer into the Sapphic stanza. This licence should have been avoided.

We have abstained from a minute examination of these Odes; and we shall continue to abstain. These youthful authors deserve all possible encouragement; and their dawning merits more than counterbalance their errors.

It has frequently occurred to our minds that Sir William Browne's *Will* might be followed, and his *wish* better accomplished, than it can be at present, if a different interpretation of the term *Sapphic Measure* were adopted.—Why must the name SAPPHIC be referred only to the Epichoriambic, or Hendecasyllabic metre, in which the Odes preserved by the two DIONYSII, Halicarnensis and Longinus, are composed? The

\* ART. Sam. Butler's M. Musurus, with some Academic Exercises.

term Σάπφικον belongs with equal propriety to the 'Εμκαίδεσσάλλαον, or *Antispastic Tetrameter* :

Νύμφαις ταῖς Διὸς ἐξ ἀϊλιόχῳ φατὶ τετυγμέναις.

Apud Hephæst. p. 35.

Tu ne quætieris, scire nefas, quem mihi, quem tibi.—

Horat. I. XI. 1.

The trifle Σάπφικον was also applied by the ancient Grammatians to the *Antispastic dimeter hypercatalectic versæ*, or 'Ενκατάλλαον, which is an Hipponactean metre :

Καὶ πόσῃ τῶν θυμίσας.

Apud Hephæst. p. 33.

There is also an Heroic Dactylic termed Σάπφικον.

The former, a sixteen syllabic antispastic, might be adopted, on many occasions, with great propriety, by the Scholiast on Hephæstio.

It appears, therefore, to our judgment, that the first of these meters, the *Antispastic Tetrameter*, might be employed in many instances, with great success ; and without setting aside the last will and testament of the late President of the College of Physicians.—How pleasantly does the scornful Sappho sing :

Καὶθανοῖσα δὲ κῆρ· οὐδέποκα μναμοσύνα σέθεν  
Εσσεῖ, οὐδέποκ' εἰς ὕψιον. 'Ου γὰρ πεδέχεις ῥόδων  
Τῶν ἐκ Πιερῆς· ἀλλ' ἀφανὺς κῆν 'Αἶδα δόμοις  
Πολλοῖσι, πεδ' αἰμαῦρων νεκρῶν ἐκπεποδισμένα.

Apud Stob. Grot. III. p. 28.

Non Fame memoris post obitum penna superstitem  
Te sublime vehet, Pieriis cui caput est rosas  
Intactum : sed iners in Stygio nunc quoque carcere  
Umbra ignota lates, vilis nec deseris agmina.

GROTIUS.

ART XII. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Norfolk*, drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By the Secretary of the Board. 8vo. pp. 532. 8s. sewed. Nicol. 1804.

WE did not expect, after Mr. Kent's Report, of which we took some notice in M. R. Vol. xxxi. N. S. p. 29. to receive a second publication on the same subject : but, as the old adage says, "two heads are better than one," especially two good heads, we shall not grumble because, on the present occasion, we have more information than we counted on receiving: Mr. Young, however, makes some apology for offering a second Report of the County of Norfolk, since it seems

to lower the estimation of the first, and to throw it into the back ground: He assures us that the present work does not appear to the exclusion of Mr. Kent's *View*, but merely in assistance of it; and that a supplementary Report was demanded, in consequence of the 'introduction of a new breed of sheep, and the rapidity with which the practice of Drilling spread in the county: by which circumstances so great a change has been effected in the Norfolk Husbandry, as to render all former works on the agriculture of that county deficient, however excellent in other respects.'

A glance of the eye at the unequal bulk of the two volumes will suffice to shew that the Secretary of the Board has gone more into detail than Mr. Kent, and must have furnished other additions besides those to which he adverts in the Introduction. On the question of geographical extent, noticed in the first page, Mr. Young differs from the preceding Reporter. Having had the area of the county, on the new and accurate map of Norfolk, carefully measured by the map-engraver to the Board, he states the extent of the county, according to that measurement, to be 1830 square miles, or 1,171,200 acres; while Mr. K. makes the superficies of the county to contain only 1710 square miles, or 1,094,400 acres. Mr. Kent rates the population at 200,000: but, according to the table at the end of the present report, which contains the results of the inquiry made in consequence of the Act 41 Geo. III. it appears to be only 160,313: Facing the title, is a map of the soil of Norfolk, and the relative contents of the different kinds are given in the annexed table:

|                       | Acres.     |
|-----------------------|------------|
| * Light sand, - - -   | 140,800    |
| Good sand, - - -      | 268,800    |
| Marshland clay, - - - | 38,400     |
| Various loams, - - -  | 576,000    |
| Rich loam, - - -      | 94,720     |
| Peat, - - -           | 52,480     |
|                       | <hr/>      |
|                       | 1,171,200* |

Observations, in the form of notes, are subjoined, on the fertility and locality of some of these soils. The chapter on the state of Property shews the great advance which has occurred in the value of land, in consequence of agricultural improvements; and as it is concise, we shall transcribe it:

\* ESTATES are of all sizes in Norfolk, from nearly the largest scale to the little freehold: one of 75,000l. a year; one of 14,000l.; one of 13,000l.; two of 10,000l.; many of about 5000l.; and an increasing number of all smaller proportions. When the larger properties are deducted,

deducted, the remainder of the county will be found divided into moderate estates, and in the hands of gentlemen who pay a considerable attention to the practice of agriculture.

‘ Seventy years ago, there was not, I believe, a great rental in the county, so that these considerable properties have been accumulated, first, by the most excellent of all causes, agricultural improvements, and, secondly, by additional purchases.

‘ Estates sell now (1802) pretty currently at thirty years purchase.

‘ In the Ovington and Sayham enclosure, the land sold by the commissioners to defray the expense of the measure, brought 43l. per acre, as it was assigned, waste and unenclosed. The average of all sales near Watton, 40l. an acre.

‘ An estate lately sold at Fishley, near Yarmouth, contained

|                                       |   |   |   |            |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|---|------------|
| Arable land, good,                    | - | - | - | 250 acres. |
| Cars and marshes, worth 12s. an acre, | - | - | - | 100        |
| Marsh, worth 20s. an acre,            | - | - | - | 50         |
|                                       |   |   |   | <hr/>      |
|                                       |   |   |   | 400        |

Rent, 400l. a year worth 500l. fairly, but 600l. a year offered for it; sold for 17,500l. to Sir EDMOND LACON, and 1500l. offered for the bargain.

‘ Price of the estates sold at and near Happsborough, 30, 40, and 50l. an acre; much sold lately; and at this time, the best land would all sell at from 40l. to 50l. an acre.

‘ Land worth not above 20s. an acre, between Coltishal and Norwich, has been sold at 50l. an acre.

‘ In Marshland Smeeth, newly enclosed, at 50, 60. and 70l. an acre.

‘ In Downham Westside, Denver, Welney, &c. fen farms, 10l. to 12l. an acre: to the east of Downham, at 24 years purchase.

‘ In Upwell, some, not fen; to 50l. an acre, but the average 20l.

‘ Mr. BAGGE, of Lynn, has land in Marshland which would now sell at 70l. an acre, which Mr. DIXON bought 60 years ago at 12l. 10s.’

Mr. Young speaks of the farm-houses in Norfolk as possessing comforts superior to those which are usually found in houses appropriated to the occupation of tenants: but he was not enabled to report the existence of one good farm-yard in the county, ‘ manifesting contrivance, and in which no building could be moved to any other site without doing mischief.’ The Norfolk farmers, however, stand very high in the Secretary’s estimation; and his warm praise of Mr. COKE, as an agriculturist and promoter of agriculture, is not more distinguishing than it is merited. As the spirited manner in which improvements have been prosecuted by Norfolk farmers, according to Mr. Young, has not been sufficiently detailed, we shall indulge this Reporter with an extract relative to this subject, though we cannot give all the names of those persons whom he considers as intitled to agricultural fame.

‘ The

‘ The Norfolk farmers are famous for their great improvements, the excellency of their management, and the hospitable manner in which they live and receive their friends, and all strangers that visit the county. I have on various occasions found how well they merit their reputation.

‘ In respect to their husbandry, the farming mind in this county has undergone two pretty considerable revolutions. For 30 years, from 1730 to 1760, the great improvements in the north-western part of the county took place, and which rendered the county in general famous. For the next 30 years, to about 1790, I think they nearly stood still; they *reposed upon their laurels*. About that period a second revolution was working: they seemed then to awaken to new ideas: an experimental spirit began to spread, much owing, it is said, to the introduction of drilling; and as so new a practice set men to thinking, it is not unlikely: nothing can be done till men think, and they certainly had not thought for 30 years preceding. About that time also, Mr. COKE (who has done more for the husbandry of this county than any man since the turnip Lord TOWNSHEND, or any other man in any other county) began his sheepshearing meetings. These causes combined (for what I know, the former sprung partly from the latter) to raise a spirit which has not subsided. The scarcities, and consequent high prices, brought immense sums into the county, and enabled the farmers to exert themselves with uncommon vigour. Experiments in drilling shewed that farmers might step out of the common road, without any danger of a gaol. South Down sheep came in about the same time. Folding was by many gradually given up. These new practices operated upon the farming mind: ideas took a larger range; a disposition was established, that would not readily reject a proposal merely because it was new—the sleep of so many countries. Every thing is to be expected from this spirit. Irrigation is gaining ground, in spite of the dreams that have been ventured against it. And if the men who occupy, or rather disgrace so large a part of the light sand district, by steadily adhering to those *good old maxims* which have preserved it so long in a desert state, shall once imbibe a portion of this ardour, we shall see new plants introduced, and new practices pursued, to carry the county in general to the perfection of which its husbandry is capable.

‘ Those who have visited Holkham as farmers, will not accuse me of flattery, if I assert of Mr. COKE, that he is *fairest where many are fair*. To name particulars, would be to detail the whole farm.

‘ Mr. PURVIS, of Eggmore, is in the first class of excellent cultivators: his farm has many unequivocal signs of spirited exertion: 300 acres of tares; 3000 South Down sheep; and a watered meadow, are objects that speak for themselves.

‘ The late Mr. MALLET, of Dunton, having, on coming to his farm of 2500 acres, nothing more than the stock, valued at 7000l., in thirty-four years acquired a fortune of 70,000l.

‘ Mr. SALTER, of Winborough, is one of the most spirited improvers in the county: he hired 800 acres, in a state not far removed from a waste: and by ditching, draining, marling, and good husbandry

bandry of various kinds, has brought it to be one of the most productive farms in Norfolk.

'The Rev. Mr. MUNNINGS, near Dereham, invented a method of preserving turnips, which he described in a late publication of merit. He drills successfully, and has various and useful implements.

'Mrs. COLLISON, of Dereham, has made considerable improvements at East Bilney; drills successfully, and has built a capital barn, &c.

'Mr. MONEYWILL keeps a farm of near 1300 acres, with a degree of neatness and attention which classes him among the first farmers of the county: the whole drilled. Fine South Down Sheep.'

At the conclusion of the chapter on Implements, Mr. Young mentions a Mr. Jex, a young blacksmith at Billingford, who at 16 years of age displayed most extraordinary mechanical talents; and who, by the account here given of him, will probably meet with encouragement and elevation, since in addition to genius he possesses an excellent moral character.

Copious details are exhibited of the parliamentary inclosures which have been made of late years in Norfolk, alphabetically arranged under the names of the places at which they have occurred, and with such additional notices as to the Reporter seemed worthy of remark.

A long chapter succeeds on Arable Land, the management of which is the grand object of Norfolk husbandry, and which Mr. Young promises minutely to discuss. Under the heads of Tillage, Fallowing, Course of Crops, Turnips\*, Barley†, Seeds (including Clover, Ray-grass, Burnet, Cocksfoot, and Chicory), Wheat, (the notes on which are arranged in twenty-one divisions,) Rye, Oats, Pease, Beans, Buck-wheat, Tares, Cabbages, Cole-seed, Carrots, Mustard, Hemp and Flax, Sainfoin, Lucerne, Mangle-Wurzel, and Potatoes, the Norfolk practice is largely displayed; and the chapter finishes with this report on the Norfolk arable system:

' For

\* As in Norfolk the turnip crop is made the basis of all others, Mr. Y. subdivides the section on Turnips in the following manner; 1. Course; 2. Soil; 3. Tillage; 4. Manuring; 5. Sort; 6. Seed; 7. Steeping; 8. Hoeing; 9. Distempers; 10. Drilling; 11. Consumption; 12. Preservation; 13. Saving seed; 14. Is the land tired of turnips? 15. Swedish Turnips; 16. Turnip Cabbages. This enumeration concludes with remarks on the importance of the culture, and with cautions against pushing it too far.

† At the end of the section on Barley, we have a curious note respecting *Malting*, which we shall copy, because it may serve to reconcile farmers to a shower or two in Harvest:

' Mr.

' For the last four or five and thirty years that I have examined West Norfolk with the eye of a farmer, the change in the tillage system has not been great. At that period the course was, 1. Turnips; 2. Barley; 3. Grasses for two, or, in a few cases, three years; 4. White-corn; on the better soils wheat; on others, rye, &c. The only change that has occurred has been in the grasses: the variation, which I believe first took place from forty to fifty years ago, was shortening the duration, from three years to two: in both cases giving what may be called a bastard fallow the last year, by a half ploughing, soon after Midsummer. Above thirty years ago, I contended, both in print and in conversation, against it, but was held cheap for entertaining any doubts of the propriety of the practice. I have lived, however, to see this change also in a great measure take place amongst the best farmers, who now give only one ploughing for the winter corn, whether wheat or tares; or in the spring for pease. That it is an improvement, cannot be questioned. The argument for it, founded on the invention of the drill-roller, and on the introduction of the drill-plough, is good, but not singular, as the practice of dibbling is likewise far more adapted to a whole than to a broken furrow: and for broad-cast common sowing, if we are able to cover the seed by harrowing on stiff soils, once ploughed, assuredly the same practice might be better followed on sand. The other reason for the former system, spear-grass getting a-head in a layer, is quite inadmissible: for I must agree entirely with Mr. Overman, that no weeds, the seeds of which are not carried by the wind, will be found in a layer, if they were not left there.

' The variations which have taken place in the crop put in upon layers, are neither great, nor are they peculiar to Norfolk: the principal one is taking pease on the flag, and then the wheat, &c. an admirable system, which has long been practised by good farmers in Suffolk, and I believe, earlier still in Kent. Mr. Purdis's substitution of tares, holds on the same principle. Considering the very great value of white-pea straw, well got as sheep food (no where better understood than in Kent), there is no husbandry better adapted to a sheep-farm, than this of pease or tares preceding the wheat crop.

' A great and a very important change has, however, taken place in the application of crops to sheep instead of bullocks and cows. For-

---

' Mr. Gilpin, of Heacham, a considerable maltster, bought some beautiful barley that had not received a drop of rain, and trying a small parcel of it, found it malted badly: he tried a most uncommon experiment, and founded upon an idea very contrary to all common ones on the subject: he kiln-dried it by a gentle heat, watering it lightly with a watering-pot twice or thrice, six hours intervening; dried it: after which operation it malted well, every grain sprouting, and no malt could be finer. Hence, observes the very intelligent gentleman from whom I had this account, it is evident that a good shower of rain in harvest, or a sweat in the stack, is beneficial to the maltster.'

merly the farmers consumed much of their straw by cattle : now the best tread it all into dung.

‘ Sheep are the main grazing stock, and no more cattle kept than for treading, not eating straw, while feeding on oil-cake, &c. This is an important change, which has had considerable effect, and has depended not a little on the introduction of South Down sheep.

‘ The grand object in the whole system, is the singular steadiness with which the farmers of West Norfolk have adhered to the well-grounded antipathy to taking two crops of white-corn in succession : this is talked of elsewhere, but no where so steadily adhered to as in this district. It is this maxim which has preserved the effect of their marle, on thin-skinned wheat lands, in such a manner that the district continues highly productive, under an almost regularly increasing rent for more than 60 years, or three leases, each of 21 ; and by means of which great tracts have been marled a second, and even a third time, with much advantage.

‘ This system has been that to which the title of *Norfolk* husbandry has been long, and is now peculiarly appropriated ; and by no means the management of the very rich district of East Norfolk, where the soil is naturally among the finest in the kingdom, and consequently where the merit of the farmer must be of an inferior stamp : barley there very generally follows wheat ; an incorrect husbandry, deserving no praise. The celebrity of the county in general was not heard of, till the vast improvements of heaths, wastes, sheep walks, and warrens, by enclosure, and marling took place from the exertions of Mr. Allen, of Lyng House, Lord Townshend, and Mr. Morley, which were in the first thirty years of the preceding century. They were happily imitated by many others ; an excellent system of management introduced, and such improvements wrought, that estates which were heretofore too insignificant to be known, became objects of public attention in the capital. The fame of Norfolk gradually expanded, and the husbandry of the county celebrated, before East Norfolk was heard of beyond the conversation of Norwich and Yarmouth.

‘ Without a continuance of cautious management and persevering exertions, West Norfolk would again become the residence of poverty and rabbits. Let the meadows be improved ; irrigation practised wherever it is applicable ; the remaining wastes cultivated, and this district will become a garden.’

We shall pass over the chapter on Grass, since Mr. Young, so far from finding matter worthy of record, observes that Meadows and Pastures are no where worse managed than in Norfolk.

Respecting Woods and Plantations, Mr. Young refers to Mr. Ken's Report, admitting that he has treated this subject in a satisfactory manner. A list, however, is added, of trees planted at Holkham from the year 1781 to 1801, amounting in all to 2,129,090.

In the chapter on Live Stock, the Secretary enumerates the advantages derived from the new breed of sheep, which he has been

been instrumental in introducing: but we must refer to the Report itself for the details.

As Mr. Young is known to have an extensive acquaintance with every branch of rural economy, and to be endowed with an active spirit of research, we need not observe that he has collected in this volume many particulars which are interesting to the county of Norfolk, and which merit the attention of a Board established for the purpose of promoting internal Improvement. Tables are annexed, giving a comparison of times, made in consequence of a requisition to the Board of Agriculture from the Corn Committee of the House of Commons (1804) to procure returns from the several counties, of the expences on arable land in 1790 and in 1803. The object, it is observed, is incompletely ascertained: but, from the returns given in these tables, it appears that the average rise of expence in the cultivation of arable land, including all particulars, is about 45 per cent.

ART. XIII. *Elements of Materia Medica and Pharmacy.* By J. Murray, Lecturer on Chemistry, and on *Materia Medica* and Pharmacy. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Edinburgh, Creech, &c.; London, Longman and Co. 1804.

THE changes which have taken place within a few years, in the theory and practice of medicine, and in chemistry, have produced corresponding alterations in the *Materia Medica* and in Pharmacy. It is therefore desirable that we should possess a work which may contain a correct view of the modern discoveries on these subjects, and may exhibit a just idea of the hypotheses at present most generally adopted. These advantages Mr. Murray claims for the publication before us; and from the proofs which he has already manifested of his talents, we felt disposed, before we entered on our examination, to augur that he was in every respect qualified for the task. We must now report the mode in which he has executed it.

Mr. M. arranges his materials under the three heads of Pharmaceutic Chemistry, *Materia Medica*, and Pharmacy, a division into which the subject seems naturally to distribute itself; and on which we have only to remark that perhaps he might with more propriety have altered the situation of the parts, and have placed them in the order of *Materia Medica*, Pharmaceutic Chemistry, and Pharmacy.

The utility of a thorough knowledge of chemistry, in its state of modern improvement, is too obvious to need illustration. Though the analysis of the substances used in medicine can seldom afford any insight into the nature of their operation on the animal

animal frame, we are frequently enabled to ascertain on what particular part of the drug its salutary virtues depend, to separate this from the rest, to exhibit it in the most pure state, and in the form most favorable for its medical operation. These objects are principally applicable to the vegetable substances that are used in medicine. They generally consist of a combination of different principles, some of which are inert, or even noxious, but which, by the operation of the appropriate re-agents, may be completely separated from the active ingredients. In the mineral kingdom, the advantage which we derive from chemistry is still more direct: since the articles in this department, which are employed in medicine, are the immediate products of chemical operations, and can only be procured in a perfect state by an intimate acquaintance with the process, and an accurate knowledge of the scientific principles on which it is conducted.

Mr. Murray defines pharmaceutic chemistry to be 'that department of chemical science which investigates the composition and chemical relations of bodies with a view to their medicinal properties, and explains those operations by which they are fitted to act with more efficacy or safety as remedies against disease.' The definition appears to us sufficiently correct and restricted: but the author, in the detail on which he enters, does not confine himself strictly to the consideration of this part of the science, digressing into different branches of chemistry, which have little or no connection with pharmacy. We acknowledge, indeed, that it would not have been easy to state every circumstance that was necessary to a complete view of the subject, without at the same time incroaching somewhat on the neighbouring departments; and the error of redundancy, into which he has fallen, is certainly less objectionable than the fault of deficiency.

The account of pharmaceutic chemistry is divided into two sections, 'pharmaceutic operations,' and 'general chemical analysis of the articles of the materia medica.' The first section commences with a description of that peculiar quality in bodies, by which the particles of different kinds of matter have a tendency to combine together; to which the appropriate title of chemical attraction or affinity has been applied, 'It is exerted only between the *minute particles* of different kinds of matter, and between these only at insensible distances, The substances which it combines never separate spontaneously, nor are they capable of being separated by any mechanical means; and they form a compound possessing properties more or less different from those of its component parts.' The effect of what is styled elective attraction, and the consequent phenomena of decomposition, are explained in the usual manner; and on this principle,

ciple, aided or modified by the effects of caloric, it is supposed that all chemical operations ultimately depend. Before bodies are subjected to the different re-agents, there are some processes of a mechanical nature, that are frequently employed in order to promote the action of the chemical attractions which subsist between them, such as pulverization, trituration, &c. These are briefly described, and afterward such as are more strictly of a chemical nature; for example, solution and distillation. We are presented with an account of these several processes; which, as far as it extends, is sufficiently correct and perspicuous: but, considering how intimately they are connected with the immediate object of Mr. Murray's work, we think that more minuteness would have been desirable. He gives only a very general account of the apparatus employed in the processes of pharmacy; unaccompanied with plates, and without even reference to other works in which this deficiency might be supplied. This circumstance must materially diminish the value of Mr. Murray's publication as a practical treatise; and in every point of view, it must be considered as an unpardonable omission. The account of the weights and measures employed in pharmacy is also not sufficiently minute, and contains one inaccuracy of considerable importance. After having stated that Troy weight is that which is prescribed by the different pharmacopœias, and that the Troy pound 'is divided into 12 ounces; the ounce into 8 drachms;' &c. the author informs us that the measures 'are subdivided in a similar manner.' The fact, however, is that the pound measure employed in pharmacy is the wine pint, which is supposed to be divided into 16 ounces.

The second section, intitled 'chemical analysis of the articles of the *Materia Medica*,' is more properly an epitome of general chemistry, than a description of those particular substances which are employed in medicine. It commences with those which, in the present state of chemical science, are considered as simple or elementary bodies; of these the author first treats of such as are only obtained pure in the gaseous state, oxygene, azote, and hydrogen; and he briefly enumerates their characteristic properties, and the nature of the most important compounds, of which they form the principal or essential ingredient. We have next a description of the simple inflammable substances, carbone, sulphur, and phosphorus; afterward of the different metallic bodies; and lastly the earths and alkalis pass under our review. These different substances are in course treated in a very general way, the intention of the author being only to exhibit a mere outline of this part of chemical science; but it appears to be for the most part correct, and is conveyed in an easy and perspicuous style. We have, however, ob-

served one position which is evidently erroneous. When speaking of the metals, Mr. M. says that 'in general they are more active the more oxygene they contain, and they are *always rendered more powerful*, when the oxyde is farther combined with an acid:' but we have a fact directly in opposition to this in the case of mercury, the red oxyde of which is certainly a more active preparation than when combined with muriatic acid, under the form of what he calls the sub-muriate. We have some doubt, also, how far Mr. Murray will be found to be correct in his opinion respecting the increased activity of the oxydes, by the increased proportions of oxygene; it does not appear to be very clearly ascertained in any instance, except in that of the black and red oxydes of mercury.—A description of the method of analysing vegetable substances, and of the principles which enter into their composition, drawn up in the same concise manner with the former part, concludes the account of pharmaceutic chemistry.

Mr. Murray's second division of the subject, on *Materia Medica*, is the most original part of the whole performance; and is evidently that on which he has more particularly exercised his abilities. The articles of the *Materia Medica* have been arranged by different writers in a variety of modes; sometimes their sensible quantities, and sometimes their chemical composition, or their place in the system of natural history, have been adopted as the basis of classification. These characters, however, are thought by Mr. Murray to be inapplicable to a work on *Materia Medica*; the prime object of which is to acquire a knowledge of their medicinal properties: on which account, he concludes 'that the method of arranging them, as they agree in producing effects on the living system, is the one best calculated to fulfil all its objects.'

The writer acknowledges that the *modus operandi* of medicines is often extremely obscure: but he conceives that this objection to an arrangement founded on their medicinal properties may be obviated, by classing them according to certain determinate effects which they operate on the body, and not from any hypothetical notion concerning the manner in which these effects are produced. The distinction is not without foundation: but we apprehend that even in ascertaining the sensible effects of different medicines, so large a portion of theory mingles itself with our ideas and language, that we are unavoidably plunged into all the obscurity which attaches to medical hypothesis. Mr. M. has indeed given his own system scarcely a fair chance of success; for he sets out by adopting, to a very considerable extent, the sweeping doctrine of the Brunonian theory, that 'medicines in general operate by stimulating the

the living fibre, or exciting it to motion.' He finds it, however, necessary to introduce certain modifications into the dogma, which was so pertinaciously maintained by the original followers of this system, that the apparent difference in the operations of medicines depends solely on the quantity of their stimulating power; and to confess that a difference in *degree* only cannot account for the observed phenomena. 'They differ in *kind* so far, (he says) that even in the greater number of cases, one remedy cannot by any management of dose or administration be made to produce the effects which result from the action of another.'

The modifications which this author admits are three: '1st, an important difference exists between stimulants, as they are more or less diffusible and permanent in their action.' A stimulus is termed diffusible, which in a short time 'extends its action over the whole system, and quickly produces its full exciting effect.' On the other hand, there are stimulants, the ultimate effects of which are equally powerful with the former, and more permanent, but which operate in a slower, or even in an insensible manner. This difference of effect lays the foundation for our author's classes of narcotics and tonics.—The 2d. modification here allowed in the action of stimulants depends on their operation being exercised either on the system at large, or on particular parts of it only; hence are derived the subdivisions of cathartics, diuretics, &c.—In the 3d place, it is admitted that 'medicines, besides their acting as stimuli, sometimes occasion mechanical or chemical changes in the state of the fluids or solids, by which their action is more or less diversified.' Hence, therefore, arise four great divisions, general stimulants, local stimulants, chemical remedies, and mechanical remedies; the medicines, however, which are arranged under the last two heads, are not numerous, and for the most part their operation is obscure, and their efficacy doubtful.

A reflection obviously suggested by these limitations is, that they, in a very considerable degree, subvert the doctrine which they are intended to support. If, in the first place, we grant that there is a difference in the mode of stimulation, and 2dly, suppose that the parts of the body are differently affected by the operation of stimuli, we cannot refuse to allow of the specific action of medicines; a supposition which was strenuously controverted by the original adherents of the Brunonian hypothesis:—but we shall be able to enter more fully into the views of the author, as we follow him through the respective classes into which the articles of the *Materia Medica* are distributed.

General stimulants are divided into diffusible and permanent; the diffusible are again subdivided into narcotics and antispasmodics;

modics; the permanent into tonics and astringents. The class of narcotics, according to the author's account, comprizes those stimulants, the action of which is general over the system, highly diffusible, but at the same time transient in their operation; it corresponds, as we are told, with that class of medicines usually denominated sedatives, which have been conceived to diminish, by a direct operation, the action or powers of the system. It appears somewhat singular that effects, seemingly of so opposite a nature, could ever have been attributed to the same substances; and it might be imagined that the controversy would be immediately decided by an appeal to fact:—but there are circumstances which have hitherto prevented this coincidence of opinion. Perhaps the principal cause of uncertainty exists in the imperfect meaning affixed to the terms which we employ, and particularly with respect to the word *stimulus* itself. To stimulate the body, in its natural and obvious signification, is to excite it to action: but what are the indications by which we judge of this effect? The state of the pulse is influenced by too great a variety of circumstances; and we are not sufficiently acquainted with the causes which immediately affect its condition, to permit us to consider this as an unerring guide. Still more obscure are the marks by which we can appreciate the state of the nervous system; and there are some reasons which would induce us to conclude, that the excitement of the nervous energy is not always proportionate to that of the sanguiferous system. Hence it has arisen that the word *stimulus* has been employed in the most loose and indeterminate manner; so that, if it has any meaning, it seems to indicate little more than the capacity of producing some effect on the system. The position that all medicines must act by stimulating the body was probably a deduction from this opinion;—a position which we are so far from thinking to be self-evident, that we can scarcely conceive any truth more obvious than the very contrary doctrine, which admits the possibility of the existence of a direct sedative. The decision of this question must no doubt ultimately depend on an appeal to experiment and observation;—an appeal of which we are perfectly prepared to meet the result.

It is time for us to return to Mr. Murray's class of narcotics. At the head of the list is placed alcohol; then succeed ether, camphor and opium; afterward are arranged those vegetables which are more particularly styled narcotics in popular language, beginning with hyoscyamus, including hemlock and fox-glove, and finishing with the *lauro cerasus*. The inspection of this multifarious list of substances, in our opinion, affords a striking illustration of the perversion of judgment which may be produced by an attachment to a bold and imposing hypothesis.

thesis. Every one knows that alcohol, the obvious operation of which is certainly stimulant, may be given in such a manner as to produce a state of stupor; and it is asserted that this stupor is the direct effect of the previous excitement. Digitalis, unless it be administered with the greatest caution, brings on a cessation of all the vital powers, which has been hastily assumed to be similar to the stupor induced by excessive quantities of alcohol. Hence it is concluded that these substances must act on the system in a similar manner; though it is scarcely possible to imagine that any one can be so wedded to theory, as to conceive that the stimulating effects of alcohol can ever be produced by digitalis, or the sedative effects of digitalis by alcohol, so that it would be practicable, by any management, to substitute them for each other in the cure of diseases. Evident and indisputable as are the stimulant effects of alcohol, not less obvious appear to us the directly sedative powers of some of the medicines which are placed in the same class with it; and this in a work which professes to arrange the articles of the *Materia Medica*, 'as they agree in producing effects on the living system.' After having passed this censure on the author's undue attachment to a systematic hypothesis, we must in justice state a most remarkable example of his candor. Although he has placed the fox-glove among the diffusible stimuli, and has characterized them in the manner noticed above, he begins his account of the medical properties of that substance in these words: 'Of all the narcotics, digitalis is that which diminishes most powerfully the actions of the system; and it does so without occasioning any previous excitement.' It is unnecessary to make any farther observations on an arrangement which involves so glaring an inconsistency.

Class 2. contains the antispasmodics. 'From the name given to this class, their effects may be easily understood. Spasm is an irregular contraction of a muscle; sometimes the contraction is permanent, at other times it alternates with relaxation, but is still irregular. Such medicines as obviate and remove such affections, are termed Antispasmodics.' He confesses the difficulty of ascertaining the difference between their operation, and that of the narcotics on the one hand, and the tonics on the other; in so much, that many of our most powerful antispasmodics are included in one or another of these classes. The nature of spasm itself is so extremely obscure, and, as far as we can judge, it seems to originate in such a variety of causes, that we can scarcely expect to be able to lay down any characteristic marks that may be applicable to all the substances employed to remove it. Certainly, however, the most striking effect of these substances is their power of diminishing rather

than of increasing action; so that, in whatever other class we might be disposed to place them, we should undoubtedly be inclined to remove them from that of the stimulants.

We now enter on the permanent stimulants, beginning with the class of tonics. 'By tonics, are understood those substances whose primary operation is to give strength to the system.' This definition accords with the idea which is usually attached to the term *tonic*; and it will be found to embrace an extensive class of medicines, which seem connected together by a natural resemblance. We have, however, considerable doubts whether they are fully entitled to the denomination of stimulants. Strength and action, so far from being always proportionate, are sometimes, as it appears, even opposed to each other; that which increases action seems to diminish strength, and that which augments strength seems to decrease action. The effect of those substances which are the most decidedly stimulating is certainly not tonic; if therefore tonics in some instances appear to stimulate, is it not more reasonable to conjecture that this depends on some incidental circumstance, than on their possessing a direct power of producing action? Were we to indulge ourselves in speculating on this point, we should be disposed to attribute the virtues of tonics principally to their operation on the organs of digestion. In what way they affect this function we are unable to explain, until we are better acquainted with the nature of the function itself: but they seem to render the stomach capable of converting the substances which it receives, into the most proper state for the nourishment of the system, and hence to repair the waste which is it all times going forwards in every part of the animal fabric. With respect to the substances which Mr. Murray places in the class of tonics, we feel some difficulty, on every hypothesis, of admitting the claims of several of those which are derived from the mineral kingdom. Mercury gives strength to the system, we allow, by curing a disease which produces debility: but it does this by an immediate action on the disease, and therefore is not, from this circumstance, intitled to the denomination of tonic. The same remarks will apply to copper and arsenic; the former of which improves the strength of the system when it cures epilepsy, and the latter when it removes ague: but it does not follow in either case that the primary operation is tonic.—The author has omitted to introduce silver, which certainly has a claim to be placed in the same rank with copper; the internal use of the *argentum nitratum* does not appear to be noticed in any part of the work.

If we found it difficult to admit tonics into the class of stimulants, we have still stronger objection against arranging astringents under

under this title. Before, however, we form any opinion respecting the nature of these medicines, we must determine what substances we propose to consider as astringents. If we refer to their supposed *modus operandi*, we shall include those only which condense the animal fibre: but, if we take into account the ultimate effect produced, we must receive all those which restrain profuse or morbid evacuations. Mr. Murray appears to have been principally guided by the first consideration, though he has introduced into his list some substances of the latter description. Thus chalk is placed among the astringents, in consequence of its use in diarrhoea; yet he confesses that its action in this disease depends on the removal of acidity. It is certainly more scientific to place in this class those substances only which have a sensible effect in condensing or approximating the animal fibres; though the other method would have been more consistent with a system which professes to arrange substances according to their effects on the body.

Employing the term astringent, as the present author has done, in the restricted sense, although we observe an evident analogy between the operation of the different substances included in it, we confess ourselves to be much indoubt respecting the nature of their action. We agree with Mr. Murray in thinking that it cannot be satisfactorily explained by their effect on dead animal matter:

‘Increased evacuations cannot be ascribed to mere mechanical laxity of the solids; and their removal cannot be referred to simple condensation of these solids. Neither can it be admitted that active substances may be applied to the system without occasioning changes in the state of the living powers. Many substances arranged as astringents occasion very considerable alterations in several of the functions; they produce effects too which cannot be solely referred to a condensing power, and therefore, in all the changes they produce, part at least of their operation must be referred to their acting on the powers peculiar to life.’

One thing, however, we conceive is sufficiently evident, that they do not act as stimulants; and both their immediate and ultimate effect seems to be that of diminishing action.

We now arrive at the second great division of the articles of the *Materia Medica*, the local stimulants. These are subdivided into emetics, cathartics, emmenagogues, diuretics, diaphoretics, expectorants, sialogogues, ernines, and epispastics. The author here seems to proceed on the idea that the effect of all medicines must necessarily be stimulant; or in other words that to stimulate is to produce an effect. Emetics are said to cause vomiting, because they stimulate the sto-

mach; but is it probable that the increase of the action of a part should produce an effect directly the reverse of its natural action? Vomiting, like many other operations of the animal body, may be produced by very different and seemingly opposite causes; mechanical compression of the brain, a blow on a very sensible part of the body, the impression of a disgusting object, bodily fatigue, fainting, local irritation of the throat, all produce the same effect with a dose of ipecacuanha or tartar emetic; yet it cannot be imagined that these causes all operate in the same manner; and still less can we conclude that they all operate by stimulating the stomach. We may apply the same kind of observations to some other of the classes of local stimulants. The medicines that are arranged under the title of diuretics are said to be such as stimulate the kidneys, and thus produce an increase in the flow of urine: but, on referring to the list of substances which are said to possess that power in the most eminent degree, we cannot for a moment imagine that their effects on the system depend on the same kind of action. If we admit that the saline diuretics stimulate the kidneys, can we suppose that squills or digitalis operate in this way? Does vomiting, or do those mental affections which are known to produce a diuretic effect, increase the action of the kidneys?

We have already extended our remarks on the classification of the *Materia Medica* to such a length, that we must pass over the remainder of the work with more brevity. The account given of the individual articles of the *Materia Medica* is, we believe, in general correct, though perhaps not always sufficiently minute. Though the arrangement is, in many respects, so objectionable, yet, in stating the medical virtues of the different substances, Mr. Murray has discarded much of his attachment to theory, and has exercised a considerable share of candor and judgment. We have before noticed one instance of this kind with respect to the digitalis, and others of a similar nature might be pointed out. In order to enable our readers to form their own opinion on the merits of this part of the publication, we shall quote the articles of camphor and hemlock; which, we think, may be considered as fair specimens of the execution of the whole;

\* CAMPHORA. Camphor. *Laurus Camphora*, Lin. *Ck Benseandria*.  
Ord. *Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Oleracea*. *Habitat Japan, India*.

\* Camphor is a proximate principle of vegetables, contained in many plants, especially those of the aromatic kind. For the purposes of commerce, it is obtained from a species of laurel, the *Laurus Camphora*, a native of Japan. It exists in distinct grains in the wood of the roots and branches of this tree. It is extracted by sublimation; in Europe, it is purified by a second sublimation, with the addition of one-twentieth of its weight of lime,

\* Pure

\* Pure camphor is colourless, semi-transparent, tenacious, and somewhat unctuous to the touch ; its smell is strong and fragrant ; its taste pungent and bitter. It is volatile at every natural temperature ; is fusible in a heat inferior to  $212^{\circ}$  ; is inflammable ; scarcely soluble in water, but entirely soluble in alcohol, ether, and oils, essential or expressed. It consists of carbon and hydrogen, and differs from the essential oils, in containing a larger proportion of carbon, with some oxygen. By combustion, it affords carbonic and camphoric acids.

\* In a moderate dose, camphor produces effects similar to those of other narcotics. Its stimulant operation, however, is not considerable, even in a small dose ; and in a large dose it always diminishes the force of the circulation ; induces sleep, and sometimes causes delirium, vertigo and convulsions, ending in total insensibility.

\* As a stimulant, camphor has been used in typhus, cynanche maligna, confluent small-pox, and other febrile affections accompanied with debility, in retrocedent gout, and to check the progress of gangrene. As a sedative, it is used in affections of an opposite nature, as in pneumonia, rheumatism, and gonorrhœa, combined with nitre or antimonials, or by itself, where evacuations have been made. In mania, it has sometimes succeeded as an anodyne : as an antispasmodic, it has been employed with advantage in asthma, chorea, and epilepsy.

\* The dose of camphor is from 5 to 20 grains. It cannot be given with safety in a larger dose than half a drachm ; and Dr. Cullen has likewise remarked, that in too small a dose, as that of a few grains, it has very little effect. In divided doses it may be given to the extent of a drachm or more in the day. Its power of checking the progress of gangrene is promoted by combination with musk, or carbonate of ammonia : combined with opium, it forms a powerful diaphoretic ; and its efficacy in inflammatory diseases is augmented by antimonials.

\* Camphor ought generally to be given in a state of mixture in some fluid form, as being then less apt to excite nausea. It may be diffused in water by trituration with sugar, mucilage, or almonds. To reduce it previously to powder, a few drops of alcohol must be added. Magnesia, by being triturated with it, has the effect of dividing and rendering it smooth, and may be used for its suspension ; a number of the gum-resins also act on it in such a manner, that, from their mixture, a soft uniform mass is formed, and this affords another mode of diffusing it in water.

\* Externally applied, camphor is used as an anodyne in rheumatism and muscular pains, and as a discutient in bruises and inflammatory affections ; it is dissolved in alcohol or expressed oil, and applied by friction to the part. Added to collyria, or mixed with lard, it is of service in ophthalmia. Suspended in oil, it is used as an injection in ardor urinæ, and as an enema to relieve the uneasy sensations occasioned by ascarides. The combination of it with opium is useful as a local application in toothach.

\* OFFICINAL PREPARATIONS.—Acid : Acetos : Camph. Emuls : Camph. Ol : Camph. Tinct : Camph. *Ed.*—Mist : Camph. Lin : Camph : Comp. Tinct ; Opii Camph.  *Lond.*—

\* CONIUM

'CONIUM MACULATUM. Cicutæ. Hemlock. *Peuced. Digyn. Umbellatæ. Folia, Semen. Indigenous.*

'The stalk of hemlock is large and spotted; the leaves are of a dark-green colour, have a faint disagreeable smell, and a nauseous herbaceous taste. The seeds are inferior in strength.

'Hemlock is a very powerful narcotic. In a very moderate dose it is apt to occasion sickness and vertigo; in a larger quantity it induces anxiety, dilatation of the pupils, delirium, stupor, and convulsions.

'The free internal use of this plant was introduced by Störck. He recommended it particularly in scirrhus and in cancerous sores, in which it received a very extensive trial. While its inefficacy towards effecting a radical cure is established, its utility as a palliative is admitted. It has likewise been found serviceable in scrofulous and venereal ulcerations, glandular tumors, chronic rheumatism, and several other diseases. The dose is two or three grains of the powdered leaves, one or two grains of the inspissated juice. It requires to be increased, in general, to a very considerable extent: at the same time this must be done with caution, as both the dried leaves and inspissated juice are variable in their strength. The dried leaves are less liable to injury from keeping than the inspissated juice. The drying should be performed quickly before a fire, and the powder should be kept in phials closely stopped and secluded from the light. The proof of the drying having been properly performed, is the powder retaining the odour of the leaves and the deepness and freshness of their colour.

'*Offic. Prep.*—Succ: opiss: Conii Macul. *Ed.*'

The basis of the third part of Mr. Murray's work, comprized in the second volume, is a translation of the last edition of the Pharmacopœia of the Edinburgh college: but the preparations of the London Pharmacopœia, which are not employed by the Edinburgh college, as well as those in which there is any important alteration in the preparation or composition, are inserted in their proper places. To most of the articles, are added useful and judicious remarks on the nature of the composition, and the particular purposes for which they are employed; and the translation, as far as we have examined it, appears to be accurate. The author has in course adopted the new nomenclature prescribed by the college:—this it is not our present business to criticize in detail; and it was certainly incumbent on Mr. Murray to use the terms sanctioned by the highest medical authority of his country. We cannot, however, forbear remarking that the alterations appear to us, for the greatest part, unnecessary; and that many of the new terms are extremely awkward and inconvenient, from their compounded structure, and the number of superfluous words introduced. We regard it as nearly impossible that they should be adopted by the older practitioners, or by those in the lower branches of the profession; and hence that confusion, so much to be deprecated in pharmaceutical language, must inevitably ensue. After all the sacrifices

sacrifices that have been made to scientific nomenclature, we have noticed, among the chemical terms only, a considerable number of positive errors; besides the introduction of several titles which rest on the authority of doubtful and unconfirmed experiments, and which, therefore, it will be necessary again to alter in a subsequent edition.

An Appendix, in two parts, is subjoined; the first containing a short and superficial view of the medical history of the gases, electricity, and galvanism. The second relates to medical prescriptions; and the chief value of it consists in tables of the old names of the pharmaceutical preparations, arranged in corresponding columns with those which were adopted in the last editions of the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopæias.

**ART. XIV.** *Christian Theology; or an Inquiry into the Nature and general Character of Revelation.* By the Rev. Richard Lloyd, A.M., Minister of Midhurst, Sussex. 8vo. pp. 382. 8s. Boards. Hatchard. 1804.

**I**N TENDING his treatise chiefly for the use of the younger Clergy of the Church of England, and for those Students of both Universities who are designed for holy orders, Mr. Lloyd has formed it on the basis and in support of the tenets of the national faith; and those who espouse different sentiments are thus apprized of the nature and tendency of his view of Christian Theology. With learning and talents adequate to the undertaking, he combines a conduct both manly and explicit, and does not indulge in arrogance and spiritual dogmatism. In his preface, he openly disavows all intention of giving unnecessary offence by contending, in a pertinacious manner, for points of a circumstantial nature; while he delivers himself with that independence of mind which is becoming a Christian Minister, he disclaims the vanity of supposing that his own opinions, however strenuously he may contend for them, are unmixed with error; and he owns the possibility of being under the secret influence of prejudice in a degree unknown to himself. Such a writer, as Mr. Lloyd thus professes himself, must be in a state of mind propitious to free inquiry; and he must be disposed to prefer the exercise of honest criticism, which will lead him to review his arguments and positions, rather than servile acquiescence and general commendation.

This Inquiry, which is divided into five chapters, treats of the Nature, Design, and Importance of Revelation;—of the Unity of divine truth, as displayed in the Jewish and Christian Dispensations;—of the sentiments and dispositions which the Christian Religion ought to produce, more especially in its ministers;

ministers ; and of the means most conducive to this important end ;—of that Doctrine which has a commanding Influence on the Christian System ; and of the best method of enforcing this and other articles of our Holy religion ;—of the Nature and Attributes of God ; the Relation and Dependence of his Creatures, and of the duties resulting from this relation and dependence ; of Adam's state before and after the Fall, and the provision made for his Restoration to the Image of his Maker ; of the Nature of this Restoration, with some observations connected with it.

We apprehend that the arrangement of subjects would have been improved, had the order been inverted ; and that the discussion on the Being and Attributes of God, instead of occurring in the last chapter, should have formed a part of, or rather have been an introduction to, the first : but Mr. Lloyd, under the impression of that alarm which has been excited against Philosophy, and adopting the maxims of some modern divines, is unwilling to allow any value to Natural Religion. He informs us, in the first note to the first chapter, that

‘The question is not an *abstract* question what men *might* and *ought* to know about God and his perfections, upon mere principles of Reason improved by consideration and experience, *without the help of Revelation* ; but a question of *fact*—What discoveries of this sort did men actually make ? The law of nature is not to be confounded with the imperfect light of nature, as now enjoyed. I firmly believe that fallen man, left to himself, would not be able to make any discoveries relative to the being of a God, the immortality of the soul, or any of those first principles of what is called Natural Religion. In the fullest sense of the word, he would have “lived without God in the world.” Whatever, therefore, is found among heathens of these principles, is to be attributed to *early Revelations* and *traditional light*.’

The most enlightened divines of the last age, with Dr. Clarke at their head, and the most judicious of the present, with Dr. Paley as their leader, contended for the reverse of what is Mr. Lloyd's firm belief, asserted the existence of Natural Theology or Natural Religion, independently of Revelation, and explained their connection ; and we may observe that their view of the subject exactly comports with the testimony of revelation itself. The Apostle Paul represents the Being and Attributes of God to be so deducible from *the things that are seen*, or the visible Creation, that those who did not acknowledge the Deity were left without excuse. It will be easier for Mr. Lloyd to reconcile his positions in the above note with some of the very strong assertions of Bishop Horsley, than with the doctrine of the author of the Epistle to the Romans (ch. i. 20.) Before our divines manifest so strange a reluctance to do justice to Natural Religion, we wish them to reflect that Revelation

lation in every part presupposes the existence of natural reason and conscience; and that, if the human mind had not the power of deducing the first principles of Natural Religion, the appeals of Revelation to Man could be of no avail. It was formerly a received maxim, *Philosophia theologia ancillatur*; and we should hope that we are now sufficiently recovered from our panic, to believe that by "looking through nature up to Nature's God," we are neither unfitted for adoring "the Father of Mercies," nor for contemplating with gratitude the discoveries of Revelation.

Dr. Horsley maintains, and Mr. Lloyd adopts the position that "Revealed Religion stands not on the ground of any *antecedent discoveries* of natural reason:—that we must resort to Revelation for our *first* principles;—and that to lay the foundation of Revelation on any previous discoveries of reason is, in fact, to make reason the superior teacher." Each of these positions, however, we shall presume to controvert. The Bishop will not venture to deny the doctrine of the Psalmist that *the Heavens declare the glory of God*; and if natural reason perceives the divine glory in the visible heavens, here is an antecedent discovery of natural reason, on which Revelation stands. Again, if we must resort to Revelation for every *first* principle, then the Being of God cannot be deduced from his works, which is contrary to the express declaration of the apostle. Besides, does not natural conscience, or a principle of moral discernment, exist in man independently of supernatural communication; and does not Revelation itself *presuppose*, in all her addresses, the existence of this moral principle? How fruitless must its exhortations prove, were the fact otherwise! If we had no ability to search the book of Nature, and no sense to *discern between good and evil*, it would be in vain to require us to *Search the Scriptures*, and to call us to Repentance.—In making these remarks, we have no intention of disparaging divine revelation, of the infinite value of which we hope that we are as truly sensible as Bishop Horsley himself: but we offer them for the purpose of calling back our modern clergy to the practice of their most learned ancestors, the practice of considering Natural and Revealed Religion as inseparably connected together, as flowing from the same God, and addressed to the same creature. Lastly, the precedence of the intimations, or (if the Bishop pleases,) the *discoveries* of reason, does not constitute reason the superior teacher; for if priority established superiority, the dispensation of Moses must be superior to that of Christ,—which neither the Bishop nor we shall admit.

In describing the value and genius of the Gospel, Mr. Lloyd shews that, though the last gift of God, it is far superior to all former

former dispensations; and if some expressions, proceeding from that misconception which we have been controverting, were omitted, the general account would be satisfactory and correct:

‘The Gospel in short is the sovereign good of fallen man, a remedy commensurate with all his disorders. Its grand end is, through repentance, and faith in the Lord Jesus Christ, to enthrone the Deity in our hearts, and to produce that supreme love of him which is the very essence of holiness, the perfection of our nature, and the happiness and glory of Heaven.

‘It appears, therefore, that the Christian religion is not to be paralleled and compared with any other. It stands alone. It is *exclusively* true. It is the only faithful transcript of the divine will,—the MAGNA CHARTA of Heaven. When it is said to be only comparatively or transcendently excellent, by such language its divinity is insulted, its majesty degraded, and its weight and importance in a great measure destroyed. For if the religion of the Bible be not true, no religion is so, for no other can advance any pretensions that will stand a sober scrutiny: but this has such a body of evidence, both in kind and degree in proof of its truth—such bright and heavenly signatures impressed upon it—as must ever satisfy every honest and impartial inquirer with its authenticity.

‘Hence the duty of propagating Christianity by *right* and *peace* means through all the kingdoms of the world. It is a duty founded upon its divine authority,—on authority paramount to all human institutions. Its genius is not to disturb the order of civil society, for it inculcates submission to the “powers that be” for *conscience* sake. It mixes with *every species* of government, and by its salutary influence improves and exalts them all; giving the promise of the life that now is as well as that which is to come.”

The paramount importance of Revelation is thus forcibly stated:

‘If this be the character of Revelation; if it convey to us a message from God himself, on which the everlasting interests of the soul are dependent; if it be given us as the only standard of truth and error, the only rule by which we must regulate our faith and practice; what must be the guilt of those who either despise or neglect this sacred volume? Of what importance will it be to such that they could “speak with the tongues of men and of angels,” and “understand all languages,” when languages shall cease, and the nations themselves which spake them shall sink into silence and oblivion? Of what avail to have known this little globe, and the kingdoms described upon it; or to have traversed the blue expanse of Heaven, calculated the revolutions of the planets, and ascertained their respective distances, when the earth shall be burnt up, the heavens shall pass away, the elements shall melt, and the world itself be dissolved? Such knowledge has its value and its place, it is useful, it is ornamental; but it will not purify the heart, tranquillize the tumults of the mind, speak peace to the guilty conscience, or inspire a “hope full of immortality and glory.” The Bible is  
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given for these important ends ; and, under the influence of the spirit, its native tendency to produce them is realized in the heart and life of man. Whosoever, therefore, neglects the word of God, it would have been better for him that he had lived all his days in the wilds of a forest, and heard only the howling winds, instead of the voice of mercy, and the gracious sounds of salvation. For mercy despised, light resisted, privileges abused, open the way, according to the strict rules of distributive justice, for the most severe and tremendous punishment. "This is the condemnation, that light is come into the world, but men have loved darkness rather than light, because their deeds were evil."

In the Chapter on the Unity of Divine revealed truth, Mr. Lloyd exhorts the student to generalize his ideas ; and to regard Revelation as a complete system, displaying throughout an unity of design, and evincing that mutual relation, dependence, and coherence of parts, by which the Bible becomes its own interpreter. If we do not agree with him in his subsequent explanations, we allow that his rules for studying revelation are judicious. It is not from detached passages, but from the general scope of the sacred writings, that we are to collect their meaning. Had he followed his own advice, would he have stated Adam to be 'the federal head' of the human race?

According to Mr. Lloyd, the *nature* of Christianity was not *particularly* and *fully* revealed, till after the death and resurrection of Christ ; and he apprehends that our Lord's character is not degraded, nor that of his apostles exalted above him, when he affirms 'that his ministry was more a *preparation* for the Gospel, than an *explicit* declaration of it,' which we must seek in the Acts and Epistles, as being 'the *most clear* and *decisive* parts of the sacred writings on doctrinal subjects.'

We have been taught to regard the dispensation of John the Baptist as preparative to that of the Son of God : but we are obliged to Mr. L. for the discovery that the public ministry and preaching of Christ himself was also a preparation for the Gospel. Hence, in the four evangelists, we have only the twilight of Christianity ; and we are not to look for the rising sun and meridian beam, till we come to the Acts and Epistles : though, towards the conclusion of the Gospels, we are expressly informed that they were "written that we might believe in Christ, and that believing we might have hope through his name ;" which could scarcely be said of a merely introductory document. In making scripture the interpreter of scripture, are we to explain the figures and allegories by the plain doctrine ; or endeavour to swell and dress out the plain doctrine in all the fantastic decorations which a bold commentary on figurative and allegorical language might furnish ? Surely the ob-

vicious mode of proceeding, in giving a delineation of Christian Theology, is to adopt no dogma for truth which does not plainly comport with the declarations made in the Gospels. We are induced to believe that learned divines have fallen into egregious errors, by bringing into the most prominent light, as the very basis of revealed truth, St. Paul's *illustrations* of his subject; which may be called the *drapery of his argument*, and are such as his Jewish education afforded him. These are no more to be construed *primâ facie*, as *doctrines*, than metaphors and parables are to be taken in a literal sense. So far from setting the Epistles above the Gospels, we should rather esteem the discourses of Christ himself to be the record by which the meaning of the Apostle was to be ascertained: for it is not to be forgotten that St. Paul was tinctured with the theology of the school of Gamaliel; and his epistles ought to be perused under this recollection.

Though Mr. Lloyd assigns such a preference to the Epistles in a doctrinal view, he does not encourage visionary expositions, but reprobates those who would give the reins to their imagination in discussing sacred subjects; and he treats with becoming contempt some of the wild glosses of the Fathers, which more resemble the dreams of old women than the deductions of sensible men:

‘There are some who seem to affix no boundaries to their wild imaginations. Every minute circumstance in the Jewish ritual overflows with evangelical instruction, and is the foundation of some most important doctrine. The plain history is turned into allegory; the very geography of the Old Testament teems with spiritual allusions; the common sayings and actions of the Patriarchs are refined into mysteries; and to the *general* expressions of Scripture, they annex a *deep* and *recondite* meaning: and this occult and mysterious sense is often not only different from, but even opposite to, the obvious and literal sense of the words. Thus the Christian religion is too often burlesqued. Instead of being clothed with venerable simplicity, and speaking the “words of truth and of soberness”, it is mutilated and deformed, and called in only to sanction the reveries of a sickly and distempered imagination. It is no longer a sure and certain light to guide the benighted traveller through the dark mazes of human life, but an *ignis fatuus*, an airy phantom, floating at the mercy of the winds, without any determinate end or direction.’

These just and manly observations shew what an able and liberal advocate for the rational interpretation of scripture this author can become, when he ceases to be influenced by system and prescribed opinion.

The third chapter is of a more practical nature, and points out, especially to individuals of the ministry, the proper dispositions and

and religious demeanour of a true Christian. It contains many valuable counsels and remarks; and we recommend it earnestly to the attention of the younger divines.

Chapter 4. treats at large on the necessity of admitting the doctrines of the fall and atonement; and it is argued that, without these, the Christian religion becomes only a system of ethics,—a mere refinement on natural religion,—in short Christianity paganized. We may be allowed, at present, to refrain from inquiring how far this account is correct; and we shall rather copy the author's exhortation to ministers of the Gospel, as salutary and important:

'Under the influence of such a faith, let us deliver our divine message, unincumbered and free from the meretricious ornaments of a false rhetoric, and unsophisticated by the subtleties of metaphysics, and the wild theories of a delusive philosophy. Let the Gospel, I repeat it, stand upon its own basis, be clothed with its own sanctions, shine in its own native lustre, and be supported by arguments arising chiefly out of its own records, and consequently co-existent with itself. Thus armed with the Christian panoply, and particularly with the "sword of the Spirit which is the Word of God," we shall be able to speak with authority, to confound the adversaries of the faith, proving that this same Jesus of Nazareth, who was crucified, is the very Christ, and is exalted on high to be a Prince and a Saviour.'

This chapter terminates with some political reflections on our present situation, and a compliment to the spirit and courage of the British Lion in the hour of danger.

The concluding section comprizes a variety of topics, both of a speculative and practical nature. Our limits will not allow us to enter into their respective merits: but we shall observe that it contains many valuable observations; and although, in some parts, systematic in its theology, in others it inculcates the practice and application of religious wisdom.

Copious notes occur in every chapter, consisting chiefly of quotations from other divines, to corroborate the system of the author.

ART. XV. *The History of Cornwall: Civil, Military, Religious, Architectural, Commercial, Biographical, and Miscellaneous.* By the Rev. R. Polwhele, of Polwhele, and Vicar of Manaccan. 4to. Vols. I. II. and III. about pp. 220 in each. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

WE shall not detain the reader by an inquiry concerning the motive which has induced this respectable writer to enter on the history of Cornwall before he has finished that of Devonshire, long since undertaken, and which it is still his purpose

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pose to carry down to a regular conclusion \*. Whatever his reason might be, it is clear that these two counties were united under the name *Danmonium*, and that their inhabitants consisted principally of a part of the antient Britons, driven thither by the Saxons : as others of them were, by the same means, confined to Wales, and others emigrated to Ireland, to the Scotch Highlands, and to Armorica, or Bretagne. The volumes now before us apply to the more early times and settlements of this people ; and they are divided into chapters, according with the distribution mentioned in the title-page. The first leads us 'from Cæsar to Vortigern.' It will readily be admitted that much obscurity and perplexity attend this as well as the yet more distant periods of our history. Mr. Polwhele, in considering 'its civil and military transactions and constitution,' advances objections, as he had before done, to that valuable writer, Dr. Borlase, and concludes (apparently, not without reason,) that 'Vespasian was the conqueror of Cornwall.' We have little inclination and less leisure to prosecute, with exact attention, the antique inquiries to which the reader is here directed. The historian has one guide, *Richard*, whom he regards as admirable in all these researches ; 'though, (says he,) unfortunately my Cornish predecessor, Borlase, was little acquainted with him.' Mr. Whitaker is mentioned as the first who duly appreciated this work of a monk at Westminster, which was found in Denmark, and there printed in the year 1757.—It is, however, at last, only a very imperfect idea that we can attain of the state of things, whether military or civil, during these years of subjection to the Romans. 'To have ascertained,' says Mr. P. 'the degree of power, still lodged in the Danmonian princes, and to have marked with precision the authority assumed by the Romans, would have been curious : but as we know not in what manner the government was conducted, by the natives and their conquerors in other parts of Britain, we cannot hope therefore to trace very satisfactorily in the obscurer regions of *Danmonium*, the features of this co-operative energy.'

We proceed, then, to the article of religion ; which, in the portion of time here occurring, presents in all countries, civilized or not, a variety of practices and customs ; some of them most absurd, ignorant, and superstitious ;—some pitiable, yet perhaps allowable ;—others most deceitful and pernicious ;—and a few, simple, plain, and in themselves innocent ; such as the Cornish celebration of the opening and advancing Spring,

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\* The remainder of Vol. I. has lately appeared, but we have not yet seen it.

by the offerings of flowers, amid processions, songs, and choral dances. The oblations and sacrifices of the Greeks and Romans to the Goddess of Spring, remarks Mr. Polwhele, were similar to those of the native Cornish. Indeed there is some, and often a great resemblance, in the observances, opinions, and fancies of different and even distant countries in a state of nature; some, which are here delineated, are amusing, but they naturally awaken a recollection of similar descriptions in other parts of our globe. In the *Furry*, or *Flora*, or Fair of Helston, on the eighth of May, there seem to be remnants of heathen joy, or of what might then be termed devotion, on the return of the cheerful and enlivening spring, and the revival of vegetation.—The historian, having mentioned some traces of Druidism, or Roman paganism, still visible in Cornish customs, proceeds to speak of Christianity; a topic which, he justly says, ‘will admit of a very slight discussion, as its admission and prevalence in these parts for the first four centuries are so much involved in fable, that it would be difficult to distinguish truth from falsehood.’—Two observations occur to us on this subject. However early might be a partial reception of the Christian doctrine in this island, it was stationary for a length of years; it might be embraced by some persons of higher and of inferior ranks, but it made little progress; and it appears to have been at a very low ebb, in various parts, and particularly in Danmonium. Moreover, places, times, and objects, which had been long held sacred during the darkness of heathenism, were still, under the profession of the gospel, appropriated to some kind of idolatrous veneration, substituting names and notions more corresponding with our ecclesiastical history. Too often did this, among other fraudulent practices, obtain in the ill-judged measures employed,—and employed sometimes by well-meaning persons,—for the progress of a revelation confessedly divine. Proofs of the fact have been frequently produced; and they are found in that part of this island which these volumes more immediately regard: one instance of which probably is, the fanciful custom said to be still preserved in both these counties, about the season of Christmas, and with a view to another year, of people saluting\* the apple-trees, pouring libations of cyder, and drinking it themselves, while they surround the trees in circles.

Whatever entertainment the foregoing chapters may produce to general readers, some parts of that which follows, ‘on civil and religious architecture,’ will not furnish a considerable portion. Inquiries after antient roads, camps, and castles, whether

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\* “Here’s to thee, old apple tree,” &c.

Roman or otherwise, can afford little satisfaction to those who are unacquainted with the spot, or are destitute of leisure and opportunity to examine other records or representations, or have no particular taste for these researches. It must, however, be acknowledged that Mr. Polwhele has exerted his best endeavours both in his own narration, and in supplying numerous quotations, remarks, &c. from other writers. We cannot doubt that he had sufficient reason for saying, as he does, at the close of the chapter;—‘ Thus have I in some degree executed what I proposed, though not without much labour, or rather irksomeness, from the various minutiae which solicited attention, and which it was extremely difficult to bring together into one connected view. The *wearisomeness* of the task was great, and the *unsatisfactoriness* of having consumed more time in examining the vestiges of a castle, than would have been necessary for the discussion of the most interesting topic, will hardly be repaid by the partial approbation of a few, whose minds are turned to this species of research; whilst the pains I have taken, and the value of what I have performed, are equally beyond the comprehension of many who read, and judge, and, scrupling not to disseminate their ideas, are able to influence the public opinion.’ We can readily allow that Mr. P.’s employment may have often proved very fatiguing; and we can perceive that he is hurt by censures which we apprehend to have been, in part at least, unmerited.

The portion of this chapter, which adverts to ‘ the religious architecture,’ will probably afford more amusement than the former.—Of the churches built in this early time, it is not to be expected that any remnants can exist; or, if such are supposed to be traced, they must be of a very dubious nature. Heathen temples, it may be concluded with probability, were gradually converted into places for christian worship; and some meaner structures were also no doubt erected by Britons themselves, or private houses were occasionally employed for the purpose: but we pass from these to sepulchral relics, Pagan and Christian.—The *barrow*, the *kistvaen*, or stone-chest, and the *cromlech*, the *plain columnar stone* or stones, and the *inscribed*, all present themselves in their order: but it is impossible for us to accompany the writer in his progress. When treating of *barrows*, he proposes a few remarks which, he thinks, might contribute to elucidate that difficult passage of the second book of Kings, ch. v. 17. From the custom which is thought in some instances to have obtained, that neighbours and friends should bring from different parts quantities of earth to form this sort of memorial for a person deceased, who had been respected, or was of eminent station, he proceeds to inquire whether

whether the associates and dependants on a great man might not sometimes present him with earth for his sepulchre, previously to his decease; and whether priests or prophets might not deliver to him what might be regarded as consecrated earth, for the purpose. If any such practice had been left on record, or might it be admissible to reason on such a supposition, it would, he apprehends, contribute greatly to remove the obscurity of the proposal made by the Syrian General, "Shall there not, I pray thee, be given to thy servant *two mules burden of earth*?"—The words which immediately follow are supposed to add strength to the request,—which to us they seem not to do. In the description of Launceston castle, we have a farther reference to the history of the Old Testament;—but we hasten to other general topics.

Under the articles, 'agriculture, pasturage, &c.' we observe that the small mutton, fed on some distinguished spots, is extolled as peculiarly grateful; and its unusual flavour is by many persons attributed 'to snails coming forth from the sands, and spreading themselves over the verdure in the morning dews.' but this supposition the author can hardly allow himself to admit; sometimes, he remarks, the superiority of mutton is attributed to wild thyme, 'but sheep refuse thyme, yet they eat snails.' That our early British ancestors were accustomed to feed their cattle with turnips through the winter, Mr. Polwhele declines not to assert on the authority of the accurate Columella. He concludes that the Cornish people had flocks and herds, corn and orchards, before the Romans visited their shores; though that nation, wherever they came, attended so much to cultivation, that their visits were followed by remarkable amelioration and improvement. On the credit of Pliny, we are led to suppose that we are indebted to the Romans for *tim*, thyme, *rosmari*, rosemary, *pabi*, poppy, and peas, beans, lettuce, bete, radish, and fennel.—Asparagus is reported also to have been introduced by them, 'but this,' says Mr. P. 'is by no means so certain as that it grows wild at the Lizard.'

*Mining* is a subject which, in Cornwall, at all periods, must have afforded matter for speculation and remarks, to which we have not room to attend; nor can we inquire concerning manufactures, which, if not wholly introduced, must have been greatly and principally improved by the Romans. By what means Caractacus could have attained the numerous gold chains, said to be taken from him, it is difficult to pronounce; the present historian considers them as affording certain proof that the art of working gold and silver existed in Danmonium independent of Rome.—Concerning commerce, we doubt whe-

ther Pearls made a part of it, although Cæsar seems to speak of their being found on our coast; if they were here discovered, we should apprehend with this writer that they were pearls of no great price.—As to literature and learned men, in this period, and in this spot, little indeed can be expected. Some few persons of piety and real worth were employed in disseminating christian knowledge: but otherwise, of true learning and profitable science, there is scarcely any appearance. The holy-lying legends, and famous miracles, which afterward infested this corner of our isle, might fill many pages.

Of the manners and usages of the Danmonii, Diodorus has given an outline, which Mr. Polwhele says he has endeavoured to fill up in his history of Devonshire: little, therefore, is here offered on the subject. Hospitality seems to have been their distinguishing virtue; and we find it reported as a prevailing opinion, ‘that the whole nation had better perish, than one person violate the laws of hospitality.’

In concluding this part of the history, some observations are made, which appear sufficient to confute the notion, too confidently suggested by Dr. Musgrave of Exeter, ‘that the Romans never passed the Tamar.’—Dr. Gibson, bishop of London, advanced this position, apparently without due examination, in his edition of Camden’s *Britannia*. Mr. Tonkin’s sensible letter, here published, overturns the supposition, and the bishop’s reply clearly abandons it; casting the whole blame on Dr. Musgrave, by whom he was misled.

We now come to Vol. II. or, as it is here styled, the second book of the history of Cornwall; from Vortigern to Edward I. It is well known that a perplexing intricacy involves the affairs of the Western provinces during the Heptarchy. Ambrosius and Uter Pendragon are prominent names in their annals; but the ‘Hero of the West’ seems to have been the enterprising Arthur, said to have been born at Tintagel castle, amid ‘the wildness of a scene that seems the work of a magician.’ Mr. Polwhele has not failed to present us with a curious legend, ‘such as will, doubtless, amuse the common reader;’—and perhaps, some others, since here and there a part of the narrations may be true. It was not till the reign of Athelstan, son of Alfred, that the Cornish were reduced to a kind of subjection. The British spirit was not easily subdued; as may be perceived by the first and second chapters, treating, as in the former volume, ‘of civil and military transactions,’ and also ‘of the civil and military constitution.’ Under each of these heads, the reader may find accounts worthy of remark, and sometimes both amusing and instructive; though in other respects, and to many readers, dry and uninteresting. In the former volume, as he proceeded,

Mr. Polwhele occasionally furnished us with a sort of glossary, which must ever be acceptable to those who read with attention; while at the same time this collection of antient words and names tended to throw some light on the state of things among the early inhabitants of the country. In the present, we meet with, 'Names of parishes, chiefly so called from local circumstances;' and 'Places, many of which give name to *Cornish families*;' among these, '*Polwhele*, the pool-work, and *Trelawny*, the wool-town by the water;'—to which are added a number of genealogical tables, employing more than twenty pages; and all will prove amusing to those whose minds have a bias towards etymologies, lineal descents, and such inquiries, which are occasionally of some use, and occasionally very deceitful. We insert a part of some observations on the manor of *Elerky* in the hundred of *Pider*, a name that signifies four in the Cornish language, or rather, perhaps, *Poudre*, the country of oaks, or *Poudre*, meaning the house of the Province, or the court-house. Concerning this *Elerky*, it is asked, 'whence is the name derived?' Mr. Tonkin, it is replied, derives it from *Elerk*, a swan, and makes *Elerky* to signify the swannery; adding that 'there are the remains of a large pool under the house, which seems to have been designed to that end!'

'In all that part of antiquarian researches, (proceeds the author,) where the eye is to be assisted by the imagination, and the past to be collected from broken appearances of the present; every active and lively mind is apt to cry out against the creative fancies of the *antiquarian poet*, and exclaim in the language of Shakespeare:

"As imagination bodies forth  
The form of things unseen, the poet's pen  
Turns them to shapes, and gives to airy nothing  
A local habitation and a name."

'But this spirit of exclamation should be checked; what depends in any degree on *imagination*, may by minds without imagination be easily turned into ridicule. What is only to be inferred by the slow and painful collation of circumstances will be ridiculed at once by those who are too brisk to be slow, and too lively to take pains: and the very *ingeniousness* of antiquarians themselves will at times be a snare to them also; by inducing them to cut short the labour of investigation, to ridicule the dull laboriousness of conjecturing industry, and to leap over the difficulty which it will not take the trouble to remove. On the whole, therefore, I think Mr. Tonkin's etymology of *Elerky* to be the only one which is easy and natural, and his reference to 'the remains of a large pool under the house' to be sufficiently grounded. There has evidently been something of the kind there.'

The natives who are here mentioned as men of property, or seem to have held lands in Cornwall before that time, have  
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been distinguished under the appellations of *Tre* (a tower), *Pol* (a head), *Pen* (a top); and numerous are the names which begin, at least, with the first two of these syllables.—The Earls or Princes of Cornwall have formerly resided in that county with great state, resembling that of the court of Wales; one little anecdote concerning which is thus related:—‘It is remarkable that in Wales, the *Penhebogydd*, or master of the hawks, was the fourth officer in rank and dignity, and sat in the fourth place from his sovereign at the royal table; that he was permitted to drink no more than three times, lest, through intoxication, he should neglect his birds; and that when he was more than usually successful in his sports, the prince was obliged by law and custom, to rise up to receive him as he entered the hall, and sometimes to hold his stirrup, as he alighted from his horse.’—We observe not any particular authority cited for this odd but not unlikely custom.

The third chapter consists of ecclesiastical history. The progress of Christianity was slow; Theodoric, duke or prince of Cornwall, persecuted its professors; and the Saxons, a nation of soldiers, were very much indifferent if not adverse to it. Arthur is brought forwards as the greatest champion, at the beginning of the sixth century, in the Christian cause: but its prevalence in Cornwall is attributed chiefly to those who are called the saints from Ireland. Of its kind and nature, we have a specimen in a curious epistle of Adhelm, the first bishop of Sherborne, relating to the sacerdotal tonsure:

‘It is addressed, “to my glorious lord *Geruntius*, king of the western kingdom, whom I, as God the searcher of hearts is my witness, do embrace with brotherly charity, and likewise to all God’s priests inhabiting *Danmonium*.” The Cornish, it seems, shaved only from ear to ear, while the Saxons, according to the usage of the Romish church, shaved all but the hinder part of the head. Such was the subject of our good bishop’s epistle; containing, probably, neglected blessings and despised remonstrances. The British *Geruntius* would rather have given up his country to be deluged by the blood of his subjects, than have altered his mode of shaving at the instance of a Saxon bishop! So bigotted and so blind is superstition!’

Such was the religion of the times; and we are pleased to see the present author marking it with his hearty censure. Christianity was then very imperfectly understood; and though many might love the truth, and possess real piety, they were ignorant, unsuspecting, and misled by the artificial and aspiring,—who then, as at all times, lay in wait to deceive others and to exalt themselves. We transcribe a few lines with which this chapter concludes:

‘This

' This then is an outline of our church history : it is a faithful, but a feeble outline. In the review of the times before us, we are surprised at a devotion (if such it might be called) the most fervent,—an enthusiasm almost insuperable by any obstacle in nature : and we wonder more when we see them united with unrelenting barbarity and the grossest impurities. Yet to the spirit of *religiousness* must we attribute the rapid organization of our ecclesiastical establishment. The zeal of our forefathers, indeed, was at one time blazing out, like a meteor, in romantic adventure ; and, perhaps, like a meteor disappearing, without one salutary end ; yet was the same zeal at other times exerted, for the good of many a future age, in the founding of cathedrals and churches, of colleges and hospitals.'

Chapter iv. which finishes this 2d volume, relates to ' civil, military, and religious architecture.' Here the attention of the historian is considerably occupied by the remains of antient castles ; and religious structures employ many remaining pages, accompanied also by an account of towns, or villages, to which they are attached. It seems rather unfortunate for our antiquaries that they have fixed on the term, *Gothic*, to denominate some antient buildings, since Goths and Vandals knew as little of architecture as they did of religion. The knowledge which they might obtain, or the improvement which they might make, in this or other branches of civilized and polished life, after being for many years settled in Spain or other parts, where they beheld edifices constructed on the rules of Grecian or Roman art, is a different point of inquiry ; as is also the advancement of their successors, the Moors and Mohammedans. It is, we suppose, in respect to these especially, that Mr. Polwhele employs the term *Saracenic*, when he informs us that ' In the reign of Henry the Third, the Saracenic or Gothic architecture seems to have been established in this county ; whilst the circular gave way to the pointed arch, and the massive column yielded to the slender pillar.' As Mr. Polwhele observes, ' in the course of the present research, we have seen matters of a doubtful aspect :—hereafter, we shall seldom take refuge in conjecture ; but shall point out with little hesitation, the mansion-house, the church, or the town, just rising into existence, attend its progress towards perfection, or trace its lapse into decay.'

Vol. III. completes the second book of this history, and presents the reader with the remaining chapters relative to the period from Vortigern to Edward I. The subjects are agriculture, gardening, mining, manufactures, commerce, language, literature, population, health, manners, diversions, superstitions, &c. A perusal of these pages may afford entertainment and instruction : but they are chiefly formed by extracts ; and in general we incline to think that the author is careful and exact in his

his authorities.—We shall specify from this part of the work merely two passages, which may perhaps be acceptable to the readers of this article. The first relates to the early rate of rents for farms, hides, or plough-lands, an admeasurement at the present time by no means exactly ascertained: but we find instructions in the laws of Ina, West-Saxon king, that a “farm containing ten hides, was to pay ten casks of honey, three hundred loaves of bread, twelve casks of strong ale, two oxen, ten wethers, ten geese, twenty hens, ten cheeses, one cask of butter, twenty pounds of forage, five salmon, and one hundred eels.”—Such was the method of defraying annual rent, by these or other articles, according to the nature of the farm, or custom of the country: although payments in money were not, even at that time, altogether unknown.—This short passage occurs at the very entrance of this part of Mr. P.'s history;—the other is at its end, and we transcribe it because of its relation to the prophecies of Merlin. Having mentioned the acts and exploits of Tregagle, of high renown in Cornubian annals, Mr. Polwhele thus continues:—

‘Amid a variety of legendary personages crouding around me, I scarcely know where to close my narrative; still in the rear are there devils and saints without number. To draw, therefore, the curtain over all, I must conjure up Merlin, the enchanter and the prophet, who seems to have possessed a power over devils and saints. As an enchanter we have seen him in the story of Arthur: we are now to recognize him as a prophet. In the parish of Paul, on the sea-shore, is a rock called in Cornish, *Merlyn-Car*, or Merlin's rock. There, perhaps, he delivered that old prophecy in the Cornish tongue, foretelling the destruction of Paul church, Penzance, and Newlyn, long before they were in existence. It is as follows—Aga fyth tyer, war en meyne Merlyn, i. e. *There shall land on the stone Merlin, Ara neb fyth Leskey, Paul, Penzance, hag Newlyn,—those who shall burn Paul, Penzance, and Newlyn.*’

A quotation in the notes, from some other writer, observes,—‘This prophecy was fulfilled when the Spaniards landed, *an meyne Merlyn*, in 1595, and burnt those very places; and so great was the conflagration at Paul, that the fire consumed the stone pillars of the church!’

The supplement comprehends many more pages than the other part of this volume: St. Michael's Mount, Penzance, the Land's End, the Scilly Isles, Roman castrametation, &c. &c. form this addition; concluding with an account of four urns, by the Rev. Malachi Hitchins, an article which has appeared in the last volume of *Archæologia* \*. Various entertaining particulars are here detailed, and we also meet with several repetitions. We observe that Mr. Gough's assertions

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\* See Review for June last, p. 197.

are sometimes called into question.—The work is accompanied by a great number of engravings, which will materially add to the pleasure of the reader.

ART. XVI. *The most remarkable Year in the Life of Augustus Von Kotzebue*; containing an Account of his Exile into Siberia, and other extraordinary Events which happened to him in Russia. Written by himself. Translated from the German, by the Rev. Benjamin Beresford, English Lecturer to the Queen of Prussia. 3 Vols. 12mo. 15s. Boards. R. Phillips.

FEW novels are more interesting, or display a more dramatic effect, than the present narrative of facts; and it is impossible to peruse it without esteeming the amiable qualities of the author. Yet much as we may applaud M. Kotzebue for his strong affections as a husband and a father, we cannot speak in high terms of his fortitude as a man, and must question his discretion in publishing some of his resolutions and sentiments. Though the circumstances of his arrest and exile awaken our liveliest pity, the treatment which he experienced was on the whole lenient, and we perceive no occasion which afforded the smallest pretext for suicide: yet more than once he tells us that he had determined on destroying himself, and expresses his obligations to Seneca for instructing him in a contempt of death. If such instances of pusillanimity actually occurred, ought he to have recorded them? ought he to have left any sentiment which could be adduced as a justification of the crime of suicide? and ought not rather the events of 'the most remarkable year in his life,' to have been quoted as a proof of the advantages which often ensue from a patient endurance of suffering? Afflictive as the circumstances appeared at their commencement, they must be considered as blessings rather than ills; or to resemble dark clouds, which, while they are passing over us, occasion a gloom, but produce consequences which add to the future richness and brilliancy of the prospect.—If M. Kotzebue's temporary persecution arose from his being a man of letters, his celebrity in that line gave him also consequence, and obtained him notice and respect. Like Simonides, he carried a fortune about him, of which neither robbers nor the frowns of an emperor could deprive him, and which procured him friends even in the heart of Siberia.

The cause of Paul's displeasure, which led to the writer's arrest on his entering Russia, is not fully explained: but it is sufficiently clear that something reported to have been written by Kotzebue had prejudiced the Emperor against him. Whatever was the ground of this harsh measure, which he ought not to

to have meditated after he had granted to Kotzebue a passport to enter his dominions, the order for his exile to Siberia was marked by no hardships which were not common to persons under arrest; and as soon as Paul had reason to believe that his detention was unjust, he not only hastened to restore his captive to liberty, but requested to be reconciled to him, and endeavoured to make him the most ample remuneration.

Perhaps, the circumstance which will most forcibly strike the reflecting reader, in the course of this pathetic detail, is the effect of arbitrary governments on the minds of all who are under their dominion. When the will of the prince is the only law, and when every man is liable, without any reason being given, to be arrested, torn from his property and the bosom of his family, and sent to a dungeon, or to perpetual exile, a debasing fear must oppress the public mind; the virtues of the heart are subdued; and if benevolence towards a state sufferer be displayed, it is with an apprehension at least that the spies of Government will convert that very act of kindness into a plea for persecution. What Englishman can read this narrative without being thankful for the enviable constitution under which he lives, and without considering the *Habeas Corpus* Act alone as a blessing for which he can scarcely pay too much? The most amiable sovereigns are liable to false impressions from their courtiers; and when to be suspected and to be guilty are the same, when trial is precluded, and punishment precedes conviction, every man is in danger; every man holds all that is dear in life on the precarious tenure of connivance; and innocence must often be involved in the most cruel sufferings. Let us rejoice that things are better understood and managed in Great Britain; and may such accounts as those now before us make us sensible of our real privileges, and endear us to our native country.

We shall endeavour to give the chief outlines of the narrative. After three years' absence from Russia, M. von Kotzebue requested permission to revisit it, with his wife and family: he obtained the desired passport, and entered on his journey, leaving Weimar on the 10th of April 1800. Scarcely, however, was he within the Russian confines when he was arrested with all his papers, by order of the Emperor, separated from his wife, and, instead of being taken to Petersburg, as he expected, to have his case investigated, was carried under the escort of an officer and a Cossack to Siberia. On the road, he made his escape, but was retaken, and conducted first to Cusan, and ultimately to Tobolsk and Kurgan in Siberia. The mode of travelling, the events of the journey, the nature of the country, the people with whom he meets, and the state of manners  
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are described. Driven almost to despair by the unexpected separation from his wife and children, and uncertain of his fate, he took little interest in the surrounding scene; yet he is sufficiently descriptive to carry the reader along with him, and to give him a lively idea of himself and his situation in every stage of the journey. He speaks of the conduct of those to whose charge he was committed, notices with gratitude the kindness and the hospitality which he received, and gives various sketches of the character of Russians and Tartars.

When arrived at Tobolsk, he was permitted to take a servant; and at Kurgan, to which he was removed by the governor of Tobolsk, his living was extremely cheap, and for an exile in his circumstances not uncomfortable. For his lodging, indeed, he paid a most exorbitant price, considering the place: but the cheapness of provisions was more than a counterbalance; while his amusement will excite the envy of some of our sporting gentlemen, and almost incline them to wish for a short exile to Siberia:

‘My way of living in general was as follows: I rose at six, and studied the Russian language for an hour; as not a soul in the town spoke any other, it was absolutely necessary to recover that knowledge which I had lost through disuse. I then took my breakfast, and sat down for some hours to the history of my misfortunes. After this task, which at length became pleasant to me, I usually walked on the banks of the Tobol in my bed-gown and slippers. I had marked out the extent of two verstes, which was my daily exercise, and, to make it more convenient, I could go there through the yard door unobserved. At my return I usually read Seneca; I then took my plain dinner, after which I indulged myself with an hour’s nap, and when I awoke, took up Pallas or Gmelin, till Sokoloff called on me to take the diversion of shooting. On our return he generally drank tea with me, over which we repeated the story of our misfortunes, imparted to each other our hopes, or combated each other’s fears. After his departure I again read Seneca, and eat a slice of bread and butter for my supper; I then played alone at *grande patience*,\* and went to bed more or less sorrowful (I am almost ashamed to own it,) as the game had proved more or less successful.’—

‘The diversion of shooting was extremely agreeable to me, though we were but ill provided for it. We possessed nothing more than two miserable guns, which generally missed fire four or five times before they went off. The whole town did not afford a pointer, nor even a spaniel to fetch our game out of the water. The neighbourhood being full of lakes and marshes, our principal sport consisted in shooting woodcocks and wild ducks; we were therefore obliged to perform the office of a spaniel ourselves, and wade up to our middle in water to look for our prey. My Polish friend was much more expert in this fatiguing exercise than I was. He would plunge into the deepest

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\* A kind of fortune-telling game at cards.’

waters, and wade about for half an hour together, firing among the reeds, or looking for those birds which I had shot from the banks. He was equal to the best spaniel in every respect but his nose; and indeed a dog was not very necessary to us, on account of the great abundance of game. Never had I seen in Europe so many rooks in one flight, as I saw wild ducks of an hundred different sorts, in flocks in this country. Some were very small; some had round, others flat beaks; some long, and others short ones. There were some with short legs, others with long, and of grey or brown colours, or of black, with yellow beaks. Sometimes, though rarely, we met with the great Persian duck, of a rose colour, with black beak and a tuft on its head. Every time we shot at this bird, it screamed in a most lamentable manner, even when we had missed our aim.

‘The species of woodcocks were likewise equally numerous and various. Some we saw of about the size of a pigeon, of a brown yellow colour, with long legs and a frill of feathers round their necks. They build their nests among the reeds, and they always fly about the fowler, and make a singular noise; we seldom shot at them, as their flesh has a disagreeable taste. Twice I discovered some birds as white as snow, and of the size of a goose, with long legs and beaks, which were both times seeking their food on the border of a lake; but they were so wild, that they flew away when we advanced within two hundred paces of them. I never was able to learn their names.

‘Besides ducks and woodcocks, we found wild pigeons in abundance, and blackbirds, flying in such immense flocks, that wherever they alighted on a tuft of trees, they covered it entirely. Their flesh was delicious, but our small stock of powder obliged us to be very sparing of our shots.’

Though, however, M. Kotzebue's personal liberty was not abridged, like that of many state prisoners, he could not enjoy himself in Siberian wilds; and his mind was employed, as he tells us, in meditating an escape: but he was not under the necessity of putting this project in execution. He had not been long at Kurgan, before an ukase arrived from Paul, ordering him to be released and sent to Petersburg at the expence of the Emperor. This change in the state of his affairs exhilarated his mind; and with expressions of gratitude for the generosity of the Emperor, and for the kind interest of the inhabitants of Kurgan, he hastened his departure. The particulars of his journey from Siberia to Petersburg occupy many pages; we participate in his impatience and amiable feelings; and we pass over trivial occurrences, to notice his affecting interview with his wife, who had been conveyed to the capital to meet him:

‘I was conversing with M. Fuchs, when Graumann, with the countenance of an angel, burst into the room: “Your wife is here,” said he. I could not contain myself, but uttered a loud cry of joy. M. Fuchs had the delicacy to retire, to avoid disturbing the first moments of our re-union. Graumann was gone to conduct her to  
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me. I stood trembling at the window, which was just over the gateway: I saw my wife enter; I staggered towards the door; she rushed in, and fainted in my arms.

‘Who can attempt the description of such a scene! I pity the man who cannot enter into my feelings on this occasion. Yes, there are moments in life which counterbalance years, that compensate for a series of years of misery! I would not at this moment have relinquished for the world the remembrance of what I had suffered: the enjoyment of this one moment over-balanced it all.

‘With the assistance of my friend, I had placed my wife on the only chair the room afforded. Kneeling down and hiding my face in her lap, I wept such tears as I had never wept before, and waited till her senses should return. She recovered, and hanging affectionately over me, mingled her tears with mine. My friend walked silently about the room; he was much affected; he was not an indifferent spectator of this affecting scene; he shared in the transports of it. Generous man! This hour has recompensed thee for all thou hast done for me and mine: Thou hast enjoyed a scene which is not often represented on the great stage of the world, and thou felt that thy disinterested friendship had contributed to prepare it.

‘After the first transports of delight had in some degree subsided, after we had recovered our speech, what questions we had to ask! What answers! What broken recitals and narrations! How often did we interrupt each other, and smile and kiss off the tear that bedewed our cheeks! It seemed as if our graves had been opened, as if we were rising from the earth, and had become two celestial substances, enjoyed a new union in a better world, and casting a last look upon the sufferings we had undergone in our terrestrial career.’

To augment this happiness, says he, ‘I received on the 13th of August the copy of an ukase, by which the Emper or bestowed on me, free of service, the estate of Worrokull, situated in Livonia, and belonging to the crown. This estate, which contains four hundred souls, and brings me in four thousand roubles a year upon lease, (900*l.*) together with a commodious mansion-house, and advantages of various kinds, was a gift truly Imperial, and affords the most unequivocal proof of my innocence.’ Now, all is prosperity; and, from being an object of displeasure, Kotzebue becomes a great favourite with the Emper or, has frequent interviews with him, is appointed to manage the German court theatre, to give a full account of the Emperor’s new palace of Michailof, and is employed by him in drawing up his curious challenge to the Sovereigns of Europe.

M. Kotzebue seems to attribute his release to the favourable impression made on Paul’s mind by a piece of his composition, intitled “The Emperor’s head Coachman.” For this drama, the Emperor presented a valuable ring to the supposed author: but he honourably confessed that he was only a translator, and that it was one of M. Kotzebue’s productions. Paul then sent for it,

it, perused it several times, confessed that '*he had done the author wrong, that he owed him reparation, that he thought it incumbent on him to make him a present, equal to that conferred on his father's coachman* \*;' and that very moment he dispatched the courier to Siberia. Was it vanity or virtue which urged the Emperor to this conduct? It was at least a solitary instance of repentance; for he did not relent towards the other exiles.

The death of this emperor is very slightly noticed. M. Kotzebue merely mentions his last interview, and '*the winding stair-case,*' since become very celebrated. He thus, at the conclusion, depicts his character :

'Peace to the ashes of a man, whose faults may be ascribed, in a great measure, to the nature of his education, to the extraordinary events that distinguished the period of his reign, and to the characters of the people who surrounded him! a man, who might often have been mistaken with regard to the *means* he employed to do good, but whose invariable aim was to be *good and just*; who scattered innumerable benefits around him, yet saw nothing but noxious plants spring up, whose blossoms pleased his eye, while their poisonous vapour tarnished and destroyed him!'

Many pages are filled in the last volume with a description of the magnificent palace of Michailoff, and with an Appendix containing strictures on the "*Secret Memoirs of the Court of Russia*:" the former, however, makes no essential part of the narrative; and the latter, though a proof of M. Kotzebue's zeal in vindication of the Russians against assertions which are pronounced to be unfounded, contains so many particulars as to preclude our specification. This author is grateful for the favours which he received: but none of the smiles of fortune could make him feel at ease under the Russian Government.

ART. XVII. *Travels from Berlin through Switzerland to Paris, in the Year 1804.* By Augustus Von Kotzebue, &c. &c. Translated from the German. 3 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. R. Phillips.

SOME of our preceding numbers have exhibited views of the French people and capital, taken from publications which might have been suspected to have received a national colouring, to have been prepared for the meridian of London, and to be adapted to the prejudices of the British public: we may now gratify our curiosity by surveying the pictures of the same objects drawn by a German, and we shall not find any material disagreement in the exhibitions. Kotzebue is a keen ob-

\* 20,000 roubles.

server and good draftsman. Like Holcroft, he paints from the life, and seems to make his characters live in the representation. Like him, too, he develops with striking effect the moral character of the Parisians, and affords ample traits of their frivolity, dissipation, and profligacy. He comments with ease and pleasantry on the scenery and figures which pass in review. His pictures do not betray marks of imitation, and if his remarks be cursory, they are however his own. 'Not a word,' he tells us, 'has been written without his being persuaded of its truth; but (he adds) I have written some words that the reader will not find here.' When 'the tide of time shall alter forms, and the danger of being saluted with a shower of stones from a meteor shall be over,' he encourages us to look for a more complete developement of his opinions; and by uniting this passage in the advertisement with the last line of the work, and its allusions to *the shores of Cayenne*, we can easily guess to what this enigmatical language refers.

Before he commences the grand display of the French metropolis, M. Von Kotzebue amuses us with some preliminary sketches taken in his route from Berlin, through Swisserland and Lyons. As he enters Zurich, however, he protests against picturesque descriptions: but the power of the surrounding scenery forces him, *malgré lui*, to make a pencil of his pen:

'I am now in Switzerland, you see; but do not expect any picturesque description of its great natural beauties. Travels in Switzerland are to be had by the dozen, good, bad, and indifferent; and it is not only an exhausted subject to speak of the wonders of nature in this country, but it had been better from the beginning, if nothing at all had been said of them: for, to be candid, has the *description* of a beautiful district, even from the hand of a master, ever conveyed a striking image to your mind? To mine it never has.

'A person may paint a lake on the right, with its shores interspersed with delightful villas, point out the chain of the Jura on the left, place Montblanc in the back-ground, &c. He may use, on this occasion, the picturesque language of poetry: yet, in my mind, it will produce only a confused image of all these objects—confused, I say, and not even resembling the original: it hovers before me, and in vain I try to seize it.

'I have, therefore, always been an enemy to such descriptions. A person ought to see Switzerland with his own eyes, just as he ought to hear a concert with his own ears. He who paints countries with words, does still less than the person who hums a symphony: therefore I neither can nor will say any thing of Switzerland. but that I have here and there seen spots, where the Almighty may perhaps have stood, when he surveyed the world after the creation, and said: "It is good."

'The fall of the Rhine did not exceed my expectation, though I was highly gratified by it. Many travellers have endeavoured to re-

present to me the effect of this view as inferior to what I found it in reality: It is a grand sight, of which no pen ought to attempt the description. I was much charmed with the environs of Zurich, and perhaps more so than with any other place, as my stay was rendered additionally interesting by the worth of the people.

‘The perspective from *Bugeli* across the lake, of the ice-clad mountains, is extremely captivating; but the prospect from the apartments of the inn, bearing the sign of the Sword, at which I put up, is more attractive, or at least more variegated. This perspective has often been mentioned *en passant*. I will more circumstantially—not describe (God forbid,) but only mention all that is to be seen.

‘The room is a corner room. If you open a window to the left, you see the river *Limmat* below you, with a very broad bridge over it, lined on both sides with women selling fruit and vegetables, with groups of French chasseurs walking among them. The main-guard of these soldiers is on the opposite side of the bridge.

‘You cannot conceive what stir and bustle prevail here. Downwards, to the left, you see, along the river, two long streets and a part of the town. If you open the window on the right, you behold, at your feet, an open country, and straight before you the Lake of Zurich, surrounded by charming villas, and skirted by the Alps, on whose summits the snowy cliffs rear their hoary heads.

‘This amphitheatre, forming a contrast of polished and rude nature, together with the bustle of men immediately below, is incomparable. The beautiful walks about Zurich would even tempt the gouty to exercise.’

On the road from Geneva to Cerdon, the sublimity of nature again conquers his resolution to avoid the style of the picturesque travellers, and he is betrayed into a description; for which he indeed makes an apology: but which, had he not previously foresworn it, would have required from him nothing of this sort. What a picture is presented to the imagination in this passage!

‘I was most agreeably surprised on my way from Geneva hither. I was ignorant that I should see such districts, as leave every thing I saw in Switzerland far behind them. Every one who traverses that country has something to say concerning it; thinking he has been admiring the most splendid scenes which nature exhibits; but most travellers would, like me, be amazed, were they but to continue their route to Lyons,—winding their way through fort *L'Ecluse*, where, between the rushing Rhone and the towering rocks, the way seems closed even to the sliding lizard; were they to see the wild, the awfully romantic and rugged cliffs; from which, at small distances of scarcely one hundred yards, the water sometimes furiously precipitates itself, sometimes trickles down, but often only oozes through the stones, and decks whole mountains with a glistening brilliancy.

‘Thus you proceed as far as the neighbourhood of Avranche, constantly beholding under your feet, the thousand meanders of the boarse Rhone, which vainly tries to dash its foam over the countless vineyards,

vineyards, till at length it rushes, roaring, into an unfathomable abyss of rocks, and vanishes entirely. Three hundred yards farther it breaks forth again with impetuosity, and hastens to join its bride, the Saone. The space in which it rolls its waves, deep in the bosom of the earth, is over-arched with excavated rocks. In the rainy season, the tomb which swallows up the Rhone and vomits it forth again, is too small to receive the whole volume of its waters. They then flow partly over the surface, and thus two rivers run, side by side, separated only by a slight partition of rocks.

'Proceeding farther, you every moment expect to behold the end of your journey; but yonder, where the rocks seem to close, the path suddenly winds between them, and a new romantic world opens to your astonished sight. Here a small lake, there steep shelving rocks, with winding foot-paths. Between huge masses of fantastically towering stones, you behold a vineyard, extorted, as it were, from nature; here again are lonely mills, supported by rugged cliffs from which cascades seem to pour on the roofs of the houses beneath.

'Held in uninterrupted amazement, you thus move forwards to the environs of Nantua, where you enter a valley, which I feel tempted to call the Valley of Despair. Any thing so wildly awful I never beheld. The lonely, scattered houses seem to have been built by some Crusoe, who was wrecked in the great world. Here, as in Nova Zembla, the sun is never seen in winter; the black and naked rocks wind into dungeons; the songs of birds are not mingled with the murmur of the streams, as they foam down the crags; but the scanty fields, which man with laborious industry has stolen from frowning nature, are surrounded by cold marshes.

'The road again winds; you are presently in the middle of Nantua, a gay, little town, in spite of the rocks which rear their crags above all the houses. No sooner have you passed this place, than you are again surrounded by scenery wildly picturesque. It is no longer composed of wavy ridges of mountains, but is formed by stones of extraordinary figures, which stand upright, and which some revolution of the earth, in the dark ages of antiquity, has placed in their present situation—figures, which you are sometimes ready to swear are gigantic statues, the workmanship of some barbarous period. Beyond Nantua to the right, for instance, you see the figure of a giant on a cliff, who, like the king of the country, has surveyed, perhaps for thousands of years, the surrounding districts.

'You then discover, here and there, ruins of old castles, cliffs, and taverns; to reach which it is necessary to be drawn up with ropes; deeply furrowed rocks, ploughed for centuries by showers of rain, interspersed with vineyards and new crosses, the evidences of industry and returning piety. You at length reach a very narrow, cold valley, shaded by gloomy pine-trees. It is closed at the extremity by rugged rocks; and behind this craggy wall, nature, enthroned in all her majesty, has reserved for you the most enchanting spectacle.

'Stepping, as from behind a scene, you suddenly behold a narrow, smiling dale; you see on the left cascades, great and small, precipitating themselves from higher or lower ranges of rocks; large and small brooks murmuring down, and uniting at the bottom, meander through

through the verdant meadows. Behind rises a decayed castle, on a cliff, almost entirely excavated by the water; and farther on to the left are the ruins of another castle, to which the watch-tower, on a more distant ridge, and still in good preservation, no longer affords protection. On the right you discover steep detached rocks, resembling a wall of freestone, and at top forming a menacing vault, beneath which the traveller steals with horror; for here and there detached masses of stone which have fallen down, seem to warn him of the danger.

'Yet beneath this terrific vault the blue fruit of the vine is still seen to sparkle, and close to its brink stands a new house, raised high into the air by the projecting stones: the back ground of this divinely beautiful valley is closed by the little town of Cerdon, and its hospitable white houses.

'Pardon me, if, unfaithful to my resolution, I have almost been betrayed into a description. Alas! here it was that I again, for the first time, experienced a sensation of returning serenity. Really the beauties of the road from Geneva to Cerdon are alone worth a journey; and particularly during the vintage, when gay groupes are every where in motion, and every one confesses, laughing, that he has not vessels enough to collect the blessings of nature. You meet every moment large waggons containing open casks full of grapes, or observe barrels standing in long rows by the road-side. Both old and young are occupied in pressing the fruit. If the sight of it tempt you, and you are thirsty, you need but to ask. A fair labourer immediately appears, and presents you with a basket of picked grapes. *Prenez tant que vous voudrez*, says the owner of the vineyard, *vous ne payerez rien*. That is, 'take as many as you please, they will cost you nothing.'

M. Kotzebue takes notice of the remarkable objects in the city of Lyons; and in passing thence to Paris, he enumerates the vexations and impositions to which a traveller is exposed in France, particularly endeavouring to dissuade him from travelling post: but we must make no more selections from the prefatory chapter.

A proverb introduces this author's description of Paris, contained in four letters to a lady: "Tell me how your room looks, and I will tell you what kind of man you are." Considering the capital as 'the room of a nation,' M. Kotzebue takes a survey of its various furniture; and from the circumstances which strike his observation, he decides what kind of men the Parisians are. As he walks along the streets, he observes every object which draws the attention and makes the amusement of the populace. Lottery prophets, and conjurers privileged by the police, trivial exhibitions, mendicants, mountebanks, portable booths, book-stalls, restaurateurs, the childish manœuvring near the new bridge of the flat-bottomed boats intended for the invasion of England, music, picture-stalls, caricatures,

toy-shops, jugglers, rope-dancers, women remarkable for long beards, or muscular strength, fire-eaters, asbestos burners, &c. &c. &c. are adduced to prove the ignorance and the turn of the common people, the facility with which they are amused, and the manner in which they fill up their time.

The first volume concludes with a warm defence of the beautiful Madame Recamier against her calumniators; in which her beneficence, modesty, and understanding are highly extolled.

In Vol. II. we are presented with accounts of the museums of the French monuments and of the Louvre, of the cabinet of curiosities, of remarkable edifices, &c. of painters and their work-shops, of the dress, meals, and temper of mind of the Parisians, and of their societies and amusements.

Having patiently attended the tribunals of criminal justice, this traveller gives it as his opinion that the proceedings in them are conducted in such a manner, that he does not know how they could be managed better.

The literary institutions of Paris also extort his praise, and he remarks that 'there is no place in the world, even London not excepted, where so much intellectual food is offered at such a cheap rate.'

Volume III. opens with a delineation of the Palais Royal, of the Luxemburg, Hotel des Invalides, of the Jardin des Plantes, gallery of Natural History, and Anatomical Cabinet. M. Kotzebue's survey of heads and petrified bones in the latter collection inclines him to a belief which, for the sake of humanity, we cannot admit, and against which experience bears a most decisive protest; for many blacks who have enjoyed the benefits of education have shewn no deficiency of intellect. We give the passage:

'A melancholy reflection offers itself here for the defenders of the humanity and liberty of the negroes, which is, that the heads of those negroes make exactly a mongrel species between men and monkeys; they are quite as *distorted* as those of the apes, and the chin like them goes *inwards*. Thus it is very possible that the blacks are not our brethren.'

An amusing narrative of a pretended Dauphin occupies a considerable space, but it is too improbable to gain credit.

From Kotzebue, as a dramatic author, a long account of the French theatres might be expected: but we shall pass it over, to hasten to the Miscellaneous Observations and Fragments with which the work concludes. Here he exhibits various sketches of manners and character. He describes the hours of dinner, female appetites, the singular advertisements which appear, the expedients of the ci-devant Noblesse to ob-

tain charity, the affectation of the French beaux, the fashionable parties, the fair sex turned amateurs, the ease with which the Paris ladies receive their lovers, and the levity of their devotion, &c. The following passage will serve as a specimen of the bold strokes to be found in these unfinished pictures :

‘ The youthful fair are now likewise *amateurs of the arts*. A girl scarcely fifteen years old will stand before *David's* painting, and, attentively gazing through her opera glass at the stark-naked Sabine, will observe, that such a muscle is full of energy, but such a one like nothing. As the pretty accomplishment of holding a fan before one's eyes was not to be entirely suppressed, but was, however, found troublesome, recourse has been had to the medium of *fixing the opera-glass between the fan-sticks*, which is a complete remedy.

‘ Both mother and daughter now dress alike, they *thou* one another, and if they wrangle, neither will give way. Both dance *la gavotte* ; they sing, play at cards, ride home separately, commit follies, intrust them to one another, they scold each other, and both domineer in the family. The only thing in which they differ, is, that the mother wears *diamonds*, and the daughter *flowers*.

‘ A young man from the country came on a visit to a young lady betrothed to him, he found her *tête-à-tête* with a young man, having before her an *academie*, (a small statue of plaster of Paris) : to learn drawing, she took lessons in anatomy. “ We are just now,” said her master, “ upon the muscles of the loins, let us for the present get to the abdomen.” — Her lover asking where her mother was, “ O,” replies she, “ the little rake ! she was waltzing too much last night.” — After this, she requested her intended spouse to accompany her to the riding-house, where, on her arrival, she jumped upon a brisk horse, and, galloping away like lightning, left the poor country lout staring open-mouthed at the disappearance of his vision.

‘ From the riding-house she went to the swimming-school, (*école de natation*) where the gentle bride entered a closet, and soon after appeared in a large bathing shirt, which having dropt, she stood exposed to view in nankeen waistcoat and pantaloons closely fitting her body, and with these she jumped into the water. Her bridegroom, who never hoped to see all these charms before the wedding day, let her swim, hastened home, helped himself to put his horses before the carriage, and with the utmost precipitancy, nay, even without taking leave, returned to the country.’

The circumstance which afforded M. Kotzebue the greatest pleasure, and on which he comments with enthusiastic admiration, is the encouragement given to men of talents in France ; with the care taken of literary property, by which an author is made independent, and the fair fruits of genius secured to him against the attempts of pirates.

This foreigner's estimate of the expence of living in Paris differs from some which we have lately seen :

‘ However much has been said abroad of the dearness of provisions in Paris, I did not find it so ; but I am rather convinced that one  
may

may live, in the same manner, much cheaper here than at Berlin. As to Petersburg, it admits of no comparison. I myself for instance, lived in one of the best streets in that city, in the *Hotel d' Angleterre*, near the *Palais Royal*, and in the vicinity of five or six theatres. My lodgings consisted of a servant's hall, with stoves, a drawing-room, a bed room, a study, a dressing room, a small room for my valet, an *antresol*, and a wood house. The chimneys were of marble, the floors covered with beautiful carpets, silk and tapestry hangings, clocks large pier glasses, and elegant papering; for all which I paid twelve louis-d'ors per month. In very good but more distant parts of the town, all this may be had for an eighth of this price. Yet I cannot forbear observing here, that a banishment of the English from Paris has brought on a considerable reduction of the terms: shortly before this happened, my lodgings were let for twenty louis d'ors. With regard to eating and drinking, I have already been sufficiently explicit. For two shillings, or two and eight pence, a person may dine well, and drink his pint of wine. Equipages and theatres are dear. A suit of the best cloth may be had from five to six pounds, and the best boots from sixteen to twenty shillings.

On the whole, M. Korzebue endeavours to be a fair reporter, weighing the good and the bad in equal scales.

ART. XVIII. *The Grampians Desolate*, a Poem; by Alexander Campbell. 8vo. pp. 330. 10s. 6d. boards, Vernor and Hood. 1804.

A PREFATORY note informs us that, 'the profits arising from the sale of this edition of the present poem are intended to lay the foundation of a fund for the aid of industrious peasants and tradesmen, who shall hereafter incline to become settlers, or cultivators of WASTE LAND in any part of Great Britain.'—We regret, then, that we cannot second this notable instance of generosity, with all the 'patriot's ardour, and the critic's praise:'—but really our views of political economy are not at variance with the introduction of sheep-farms into the Highlands of Scotland; and Mr. Campbell's poetry is fully as 'desolate' as the mountains which he commiserates. Dr. Johnson had insinuated that, when the Scotch had not *kale*, they probably had nothing; and, without the aid of six wailing cantos, we were always charitably disposed to sympathize with the natives of their hills, until the following bill of fare (which, though recorded in verse, has much of the semblance of solid matter of fact,) convinced us that they are by no means very marked objects of compassion:

'Now groans the social board 'neath viands good,  
(What Scotian swains deem admirable food!)  
Here *sheep-head-broth* just reeking from the pot,  
There a capacious *haggis* hissing hot,

Here fat *kail-brose*, a dish beyond compare,  
 'There *beef* and *greens*, O most delicious fare !  
 Here smokes a *surloin*, savoury, brown, and nice,  
 For *wboso* wants an ample, juicy slice.  
 There *venison* (chief of viands) lures the eye,  
 (For which the epicure oft heaves a sigh) ;  
 Here *mutton* small, reared on the mountain-waste,  
 Of tender fibre and of luscious taste ;  
 There *salmon*, of the scaly race the pride,  
 Firm, fresh, and recent from the water-side.  
 —Lo, what a generous feast, salubrious, strong !  
 How keenly dash the gladsome guests among  
 The various dishes !—sated, now they pause,  
 And drink a bumper-toast to freedom's cause.'—

Even the Highland bees, we may presume, partake of plentiful and copious cheer ; for they disdain to commit murder, except an enemy invade their borders :

' So thus an *apiary* well-stored with swarms,  
 Who, though possessed of—yet ne'er fly to arms,  
 Save when invaded,—then, in self defence  
 To combat, fall, or conquer most propense,  
 Enraged, forthwith they pour upon the foe,  
 And shafts envenomed lay the spoilers low !'

The very grass is disposed to be contemplative :

' Two-thirds or more of hill grass is required,  
 From noise and hurry free—serene, retired.'

Nor is it the least of public blessings, that the Gaël may laugh at the art and the bills of the apothecary :

' Thus, wild *dwarf-myrtle* of the moorish waste,  
 (Of odour fragrant, but of acrid taste),  
 Its virtue vermifuge is highly prized,  
 Nor bitter seems when skilfully disguis'd ;  
 Th' astringent *tormentil* that spreads the heath,  
 The caustic *spearwort* of the lake beneath,  
 The kindly *groundsel*, meet for healing sores,  
 The precious *eye-bright* that lost sight restores,  
 The styptic *milfoil*, drastic *clubmoss* wild,  
 And *lovage* warm, carminative, yet mild,  
 The fragrant *rosewort*, head-ache's sovereign cure,  
 The *fox-glove* deadly, yet, specific sure  
 In bloated dropsies—sometimes in decline,  
 The *gentian* bitter, yet stomachic fine,  
 The nutrient *orchis* of the waste and wood,  
 And mountain *burdock*, most salubrious food.'

Let not the Scottish Highlander dread death or famine :

' When murrain rages, or when famine reigns,  
 And desolates the hills, or blights the plains,

Go cheerly search for herbs — the wood or waste  
*Possess* abundance — grateful to the taste,  
 Salubrious, nourishing, when dressed with care —  
 By hunger season'd, luscious seems the fare.  
 And should thy lot be cast where billows roar,  
 Even there, go pick thy food along the shore,  
 For man and beast may satisfy their wants,  
*So long as sable rocks rear rich sea-plants.'*

The mention of *orchards* on the Grampians struck us as a poetical licence, till we found that they yield only haws, hazelnuts, and whortle-berries :

' There cull the billberry of lustre blue,  
 And spreading cranberry of crimson hue,  
 With jetty crow-berries your thirst now slake,  
*But be aware how much of those you take.'*

We believe that Mr. Campbell has read Virgil's *Georgics*, Goldsmith's *Deserted Village*, and other excellent models: but he has not copied from them with much grace and felicity. In the following prosaic lines, we can trace some semblance of the ghost of Maro :

' If near the sea thy grange and pastures are,  
*Sea ware* spread o'er thy fields with lib'ral care,  
 And where it is abundant, with due help,  
 Convert the precious ware to purest *kelp*.  
 Thus every gift of nature turn to use,  
 For true economy admits not of *misuse*.

' Those rural labours, various to ensure  
 Against encroachments that oppress the poor,  
 Let plain and simple salutary laws  
 Respecting *store farms*, clear in every clause,  
 Be framed, and pass'd — and giving full effect  
 By sanction senatorial to protect,  
 The rights and privileges well defin'd,  
 Of rural industry of every kind.'

Our poet's lyre, however, sometimes sounds a louder and a loftier strain, bordering on the Homeric :

' As when in ire, contentious kites and crows,  
 High pois'd on wing, from chattering come to blows,  
 Sublime they mingling wheel from hill to hill,  
 And caw and scream, and whet the beak and bill —  
 'Tis horrid uproar all ! while crow meets kite,  
 Lo ! how they tug and thwack, and peck and smite.'

The appearance of the herrings is also announced with a degree of animation and bustle peculiarly suited to the subject :

' They come ! they come ! the scaly hordes appear !  
 Lo there ! — See yonder ! now behold them here !'

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Sometimes, we perceive a noble disdain of the vulgar rules of syntax ; as,

- To all *belong* the produce of our lands,'
- Where luscious herbage in succession *rise*.'
- These self-same hills and vales *was* wont resound.'
- While round them *flourish* every object dear.'

———— ' Nor sun nor moon *return*

The cheerless vale.'

The subsequent lines are, perhaps, the most tolerable in the whole performance :

- Or should the man of thought, revolving deep,  
Heaven in his eye, his wakeful vigils keep,  
In noiseless search mid learning's secret store,  
Retire with BACON, or with NEWTON soar.  
When truth and reason hold their mild controul,  
Thus arts and sciences expand the soul ;  
While peace, abundance, sweet contentment, ease,  
Love, and true friendship, all combined to please,  
Shall lead to man's enjoyments, God hath given,  
While bright-ey'd hope triumphant points to heaven.'

The notes, which are extensive, and in plain prose, display an intimate acquaintance with Highland customs and manners. At page 171, the author gives an affecting relation of the distresses of a poor family, who had quitted their native mountains, without any fixed plan of settlement : but the passage is too long for insertion.—The reasons alleged for rearing the native sheep, in preference to other races, are sensible, and, we think, conclusive.—Some curious notices will also be found (p. 262.) respecting the different sorts of dances peculiar to the Highlands, and the music of the bagpipe.

To this work is annexed the prospectus of a new agricultural insitution, or fund of aid for the cultivators of waste land. In submitting his thoughts on this important subject to the consideration of the public, we doubt not that the author is influenced by the most pure and honourable motives ; and we trust that his exertions may contribute to the welfare of his country, though we cannot flatter him with the assurance that he has ' applied with energy, judgment, and taste, the rules of the art of poetry.'

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For SEPTEMBER, 1805.

## GEOGRAPHY.

Art. 19. *A General and Classical Atlas*: accompanied with a concise Treatise on the Principles of Geography. and with a few practical Remarks on the Application of Maps to the Purpose of Instruction. By the Rev. Edward Patteson, M. A. of Richmond, Surrey. 4to. 3l. 13s. 6d.; inferior Edition 2l. 2s. Kivingtons, &c. 1804.

OF the present collection, the special object is the instruction of young Students; and, on this account, every map is accompanied with a blank map, or containing only the principal Circles, outlines of countries, &c. Notwithstanding the explanations of the author, we confess that we do not perceive the utility of these blank maps. Mr Patteson has also prefixed what he calls *Principles of Geography*; in which, in a style not the most unambitious and unadorned, he writes emphatically, by writing almost every fifth word in *Italics*. This custom does not please us; and in spite of it, during the perusal of the *Principles of Geography* in which some brief and uninteresting history is introduced, lethargy more than once stole on us unbidden.

The first part only is now before us, containing all the letter-press, and about half of the maps; viz. sixteen in number.

## AGRICULTURE, &amp;c.

Art. 20. *Two Tracts*, first, *Thoughts concerning the Uses of Clay Marl as Manure*; second, *Thoughts or Queries concerning the Uses of Agricultural Salts*, in the Manufacture of Manures; and also concerning the proper Modes of decomposing Pit-Coal, Wood, Peat, Sods, and Weeds, to increase the future Means of making Manure. Also an Appendix, containing, first, *Thoughts concerning puncturing Wood for its Preservation*; and, secondly, concerning the Erection of Kilns at New Malton, in Yorkshire, to extract Tar from Pit-Coal, and use the Coke in the Calcination of Lime-stone. By the Hon. and Rev. James Cochrane, Vicar of Mansfield, York, &c. 8vo. 2s. Mawman.

Much is here promised, but little is executed to the satisfaction of the reader. Mr. Cochrane's manner is rambling and desultory; and, as he professes himself to be no chemist, he does not seem justified in giving a chemical lecture to the agriculturist. The use of marl as manure is no novelty, though the directions here given to boil peat for that purpose are perfectly new: but we apprehend that farmers will require some evidence of the utility of Mr C.'s speculations, before they will erect buildings and furnaces on peat-bogs, for the purpose of peat-baking and boiling. The specimen of thoughts in the two Tracts will justify us in passing over the Appendix in silence.

## EDUCATION.

## EDUCATION.

Art. 21. *Recueil d'Historiettes, &c.* A Collection of amusing little Stories and Conversations: with an easy and progressive Method of construing French into English. for the Use of young Persons learning the French Language. By A. Cizos. 12mo. 2 Vols. Boards. Printed at Liverpool.

The opinion of a teacher, who can speak from experience, is the most desirable on books of instruction in any language: but, as far as we can judge, the method pursued in these volumes is not likely to prove beneficial to the pupil. We observe that the English construction and the *parsing* are not founded on any just principles of grammar, and must continually give erroneous notions of the force of the language, and the real meaning of the words. For instance — '*est ce que*.' — is it because? This gives the sense, it is true: but not the strict grammatical sense: for the expression is in reality elliptical. and *que* is the accusative singular of *qui* governed by a verb understood. To render it therefore literally, it should be — Is this (the cause) which (follows) namely, &c. — Again, in the parsing index, to call the expression '*à l'égard de*,' a preposition, is to deceive a child. It consists of the two prepositions (*a* and *de*.) the article (*le*) and the noun (*l'égard*). These things ought to be taught to children simply and truly as they are.

Art. 22. *Instruction for Youth*, in a Series of Lectures on moral and religious Subjects. Intended for the Use of Schools and Families. Vols. I. and II. By Richard Wright. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Vidler, &c.

Persons above the class of youth may derive pleasure and improvement from these lectures, which treat of most important subjects in a very methodical and lucid manner. Animated with the commendable desire of establishing the religion of the rising generation on the firmest basis, of preventing the seeds of infidelity from taking root in early life, and of suggesting those views of the Gospel which are not less amiable than just, Mr. Wright prepared and delivered to a number of young persons a series of Lectures on the Being, Perfections, and Providence of God, and on the Evidences, Nature and Design of Christianity. In the first volume, he endeavours to demonstrate the great principles of *natural*, and in the second those of *revealed* religion. Throughout the whole series, the Lecturer neatly arranges his ideas, expresses himself with perspicuity, and does not tire by prolixity. His continual endeavour is to afford to his young friends clear apprehensions of religion, to make faith the result of inquiry, and the profession of Christianity to spring from a heart-felt conviction of its truth, and an admiration of its divine contents. This is the proper method of conducting religious education. We should first lay the broad foundation on general principles, before we proceed to discuss the discriminating doctrines of particular sects; and if this course were adopted, it is very probable that the church would have fewer enemies without and fewer bigots within. By persevering in that system of religious education which teaches words without ideas, young persons acquire by degrees a kind of *parrot-devotion*; and, as  
Mr.

Mr. Wright observes, 'a man who uses words without ideas is little better than a speaking statue.' In the repetition of certain catechisms, children can be considered as nothing better than speaking statues; and parents are not sufficiently aware of the consequences of giving their children a habit of using the tongue unconnected with the mind.

We recommend these lectures as calculated to make men religious on principle, to cause faith and knowledge to go hand in hand. Mr. Wright does not descend to discuss the controverted articles of faith; and so far his observations are adapted to Christians in general: but it must not be concealed that his rational and liberal views of the Gospel will not be alike acceptable to all parties.

The first volume contains eight lectures, including a preliminary address. on the Existence of God—on what can be known of God, on his Government and Providence—and answers to the principal objections which have been made to his existence and government.

Volume the second includes an equal number of lectures, on the temper of mind in which religious inquiries ought to be pursued—on the necessity of revelation—on the historic proofs and credibility of the Gospel—on the effects of the Gospel—on its nature or distinguishing properties—on its design and purpose—and on the objections which have been urged against it.

The design of Christianity is exhibited in eight particulars. 1. To enlighten the world. 2. To destroy superstition, and to establish the doctrine and worship of one God, throughout the earth. 3. To assure all men of, and to prepare them for, a future state. 4. To make all men righteous. 5. To produce universal peace. 6. To unite all mankind together as one family. 7. To produce universal liberty. 8. To make all mankind happy.

Such being the design of the religion of Jesus, what virtuous man can be its foe? or who can help praying for its universal empire?

The plan of instruction, which Mr. Wright has contemplated, does not appear to be complete; he will probably, therefore, if he meets with encouragement, proceed to a course of moral lectures; which, if executed with judgment and conciseness, will form a valuable addition to the present work.

Art. 23. *An Introduction to the Use of the Globes, for Youth of both Sexes*; particularly designed for Schools and private Teachers. By John Greig. 12mo. 2s. 6d. bound. Crosby and Co. 1805.

This small work will be an useful assistant to young people. Some geometrical definitions and constructions are properly prefixed to the geographical part, but several of what the author calls his *astronomical paradoxes* might, in our opinion, have been advantageously omitted.

Art. 24. *A new Introduction to Arithmetic.* By John Greig. 12mo. 2s. bound. Crosby and Co.

More concise, but not, as far as we are able to discover, more exact or more perspicuous than the generality of books of the same description.

Art.

Art. 25. *The Youth's Treasure*; or, a Treatise on Morality, Virtue, and Politeness, enlivened with Anecdotes and Examples. From the French of M. Blanchard. 12mo 2s Darton and Harvey.

These conversations abound in practical instruction for young persons, and appear to be successfully designed for the purpose of inculcating lessons of humanity, mutual kindness, and a general sense of moral and religious obligation.

Art. 26. *The Juvenile Bible*: being a brief Concordance of the Holy Scriptures, in Verse, &c. &c. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Allen.

We cannot flatter the author of this publication, by stating our opinion that his plan is likely to answer his benevolent labours for the improvement of young persons in religious knowledge.

Art. 27. *The Telescope*; or moral Views for Children. 12mo. 2s. Darton and Harvey.

The various lessons of virtue, which are inculcated in this little volume, are well adapted to improve the morals, and to cherish the benevolent feelings of young persons. They will find in this collection invitations to industry and application, to an open and ingenuous conduct, to a taste for simple pleasures, to humanity, and to piety.

Art. 28. *Exercises on the Globes*; interspersed with some Historical, Biographical, Chronological, Mythological, and Miscellaneous Information: on a new Plan designed for the Use of young Ladies. By William Butler. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Mawman, &c.

So many small books, on subjects described in this title-page, are now submitted to our consideration, that we are not a little puzzled in giving an opinion concerning them that shall be exactly proportional to their merits: we want some scale by which we might at once put down in figures the value of this and of that performance. The present work has undoubtedly merit, and contains (if not *new*) much *useful* information. We prefer a beautiful to a dreary road: but, perhaps, the author has too frequently interspersed his clumps of quotation, and too frequently interrupted the plain course of instruction with the shrubs and flowrets of poetry.

#### RELIGIOUS.

Art. 29. *Sacred Hours*: or Extracts for private Devotion and Meditation; comprehending the Psalms arranged and classed under various Heads: together with Prayers, Thanksgivings, Hymns, &c. &c. principally selected from Scripture: the whole intended as a Compendium of Divine Authority, and a Companion for the Hour of Solitude and Retirement. 2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Ginger. 1804.

This ample title sufficiently indicates the contents of these Volumes; to the publication of which the compiler has been urged by an earnest desire of promoting the habitual exercise of devout contemplation. Those passages of Scripture are selected which contain sublime descriptions of the Almighty, and which are peculiarly calculated for devotion and serious meditation. The Psalms are arranged under the heads of instructive, penitential, supplicatory, thanksgiving, prophetic, historical, and occasional. The Prayers, Hymns, and

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pious Addresses, extracted from various modern authors, form no improper supplement to the selections from the O. and N. T.; and the whole constitutes an useful manual of scriptural piety, which the private Christian may use with advantage, and which may afford to the Clergyman occasional help in suggesting topics for public exhortation.

Art. 30. *A Guide to Heaven*: seriously addressed to all who believe the Gospel to be the Word of God. By the Rev. Charles Sleech Hawtry, A. B. Vicar of Widston, Monmouthshire. 8vo. pp. 172. 4s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1805.

With the truly laudable view of promoting the eternal principles of religion, and of inducing Christians to regulate their actions according to the divine standard of the Gospel, this little but important volume is presented to the public. The reverend author makes no attempt to bewilder his readers in the mazes of controversy, but calls the attention of those who profess to believe the Gospel to the numerous and urgent precepts of practical piety which it contains, on the subjects of Forgiveness, Prayer, Covetousness, Temperance, Humility, Justice, Truth, Swearing, Repentance, the Lord's Supper, Charity, Fortitude in Adversity, Conjugal, Parental, and Filial Love, Masters and Servants; Obedience to Governors, and the Conduct of the Clergy.

The passages in the Gospels and Epistles, which relate to these topics, are brought together in one view; to which are subjoined a short application and improvement, in the manner observed by Doddridge in his Family Expositor.

Art. 31. *Sermons chiefly designed to elucidate some of the leading Doctrines of the Gospel.* By the Rev. Edward Cooper, Rector of Hamstall Ridware, Stafford. 12mo. pp. 344. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

This preacher is of opinion that, 'of every species of composition intruded on the public, Sermons perhaps stand least in need of apology.' We, however, must beg leave to differ from Mr. Cooper. The press has been so inundated with Sermons, that an apology is requisite for adding to their number, unless something above mediocrity at least be produced. We find passages in the discourses before us which neatly delineate Christian duty; and Mr. C.'s ardour in supporting what he terms 'evangelical truth' will be acceptable to orthodox readers: but his arguments have often been repeated, and his representations are not peculiarly striking and impressive. He has given one sermon on Christ's *yoke*, and another on Christ's *burden*, as if distinct ideas were intended to be conveyed by our Saviour in these two words; and the volume concludes with a discourse intitled 'Christ the Beloved, and the friend of his people,' on a text from the Song of Solomon, chap. v. 16.

Art. 32. *An Exhortation to the Duty of Catechising*: with Observations on the Excellency of the Church Catechism. By Edward Pearson, B. D. Rector of Rempstone. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

We cordially agree with Mr. Pearson in the fundamental principles of this exhortation, and applaud the boldness with which he combats those

those who may be termed the *sectaries* of his own church, *i. e.* the zealous Calvinistic Clergy; who, under the self assumed denomination of *Evangelical Ministers*, are making a schism in the body which threatens serious consequences. Nothing can be clearer than that the Articles and Liturgy of the Church of England are *not* Calvinistic; and if any farther demonstration of the fact were necessary than that which Dr. Kipling has given in his judicious pamphlet on this subject, it will be found in the circumstance mentioned by Mr. Pearson, that these Evangelical Ministers object to employ the Church Catechism in the religious education of youth. The motive of their objection is, as far as it goes, a recommendation of the Catechism to all those who wish to have the Deity contemplated as a God of justice and mercy, an object of our love and admiration, which he cannot be on the high Calvinistic scheme.

The Church Catechism is but slightly doctrinal, and is chiefly calculated to impress on the rising generation the practical parts of religion, or to make virtuous and amiable members of society. Mr. P. wishes that it had noticed the constitution of the Christian Church; but is this omission any serious objection? If care were taken to instruct the poor in England, similarly to the practice in Scotland, where every parish has its endowed school, (which this writer recommends,) we should no doubt discern the good effects of it in the improved morals of the poor; for without previous instruction in the first principles of religion, preaching must be altogether nugatory; and it is instruction which Mr. P. means by *catechising*.

**Art. 33.** *The Lord's Supper considered:* in Two Sermons preached at Perth, Dec. 2, 1802, on the Occasion of the Church assembling in the Tabernacle, commencing the Practice of celebrating that Ordinance every Lord's Day. To which is added an Appendix, concerning the Sin of eating and drinking unworthily. By Robert Little. 12mo. 1s. Ogle, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and London.

Many judicious remarks are made in these discourses, to explain the true nature of the Lord's Supper, and to obviate the misconceptions which prevail respecting it. The preacher's chief object is the enforcement of weekly communion, as the indispensable duty of all Christians: but, though supported by the practice of the primitive church for a long period, this cannot be said to be expressly enjoined in any of the passages quoted by Mr. Little as containing the scriptural history of the origin of the Lord's Supper. The time and mode of its celebration seem to be left to the good-sense and discretion of Christian societies. In the evangelical accounts, no intimation is given which could direct the periods of its recurrence; and in the passage quoted from St. Paul's first Epistle to the Corinthians, (ch. xi. 25.) the word *οσως*, *as often*, or *whenever*, though it intimates a something more than an annual communion like the passover, leaves Christian churches at liberty on this point. We would therefore parody the Apostle here; and say, "Let not him that communicates weekly judge him who communicates less frequently."

## POETRY.

- Art. 34. *Fables on Subjects connected with Literature.* Imitated from the Spanish of Don Tomas de Yriarte. By John Belfour, Esq. 12mo. pp. 170. Plates. 7s. 6d. in Boards. Richardsons. 1804

If Mr. Belfour be a faithful imitator, Yriarte has obtained more than his just praise. Most of these fables are deficient in point and spirit; and the poetry, in which they are conveyed to the English reader, is not much calculated to relieve their intrinsic dulness. That our readers, however, may have an opportunity of judging for themselves, we quote the 16th fable, at random:

## ‘ THE SPARROW AND THE NIGHTINGALE.

‘ Tho’ wond’rous great is learning’s store,  
Labour each day adds something more;  
Science, rejoic’d, her hoard may view,  
Yet time to her brings something new;  
Nor is there one whose ample mind,  
Howe’er enlarg’d,—howe’er refin’d,—  
Tho’ toil and knowledge gfts impart—  
Can perfect any work of art.  
Yet some, in their own judgment wise,  
As they advance in life, despise  
Those, who their minds presume to teach,  
Conceiving nought above their reach!  
While they to learning ne’er apply,  
But blockheads live and blockheads die.—

‘ Ye then who pant for useful knowledge,  
In war, on travel, or at college,  
Oh! never, through excess of pride,  
Presume instruction to deride—  
Children and fools may teachers spurn,  
But wisdom’s ne’er too old to learn.—

‘ As once an organ’s sprightly sound,  
Delighted all the village round,  
A Nightingale, that charm’d the plain,  
Follow’d, well pleas’d, the dulcet strain,  
“ And as the warbler pour’d her throat  
Responsive to the minstrel’s note,”  
A Sparrow, who had heard the lay,  
Attentive on her osier spray,  
Her rude impervious haunts among,  
Thus criticized th’ enchantress’ song.

“ It moves my wonder and surprise  
That you, a bird so learn’d and wise,  
Who far more qualities can boast  
Than any of the feathered host,  
Should deign a lesson to receive  
From one to whom you knowledge give;

of one of the Proctors of the King of France, to exclude the English from making a Nation in the Council, was received "with a general murmur as a piece of unjust chicanery;" and when the discussion on the controversy between the French and the English was undertaken, so far is England from being regarded as an appendage of Ireland, that *Wales, Scotland, and Ireland* are asserted to belong to England. Nothing is said of the English advocates claiming precedence for their monarchs as lords of Ireland *only*: but the account concludes with observing that "the English were maintained in the possession of their right, and made a fifth Nation, as they had formed the fourth before the union of the *Spaniards*."

Mr. B. pays a warm tribute of commendation to the amiable *Penn.*, the founder of Pennsylvania, who established a most tolerant code of laws in this new settlement: but he asserts that the honour of being the first to erect a colony composed 'of different denominations of christians, where the laws respecting liberty and property, both civil and religious, were *equally* extended to *all*, and where no particular sect was permitted to arrogate to itself peculiar advantages,' belongs to Cæcilius Calvert, Baron of Baltimore, a Catholic. The encomium on Lord Baltimore closes with a glance at the condition of his brethren in Ireland:

'Cæcilius Calvert, the father of his province, having lived to enjoy, what few men ever possess; the fruits of the tree his own hand had planted and watered; died in the beginning of 1676, covered with age and reputation, in the *forty-fourth* year of his government. On his tombstone ought to be engraven, 'that *while fanaticism deluged the empire, he refused his assent to the repeal of a law, which, in the true spirit of Christianity, gave liberty of conscience to ALL*!!' He and his father were both Roman Catholics.—Would to God that such a benevolent code was universal, and that some modern Calvert could obtain a *patent*, to confer peace and happiness on *four millions* of my distracted countrymen, goaded on to rage and rebellion, in the very teeth of Christianity.'

Such language is not to be applauded for its discretion. We should hence suppose that the Catholics of Ireland were labouring under the most goading restraints; and that their present oppressions justified 'rebellion,' a statement which we must pointedly reprobate. Many of the disabilities under which the Catholics lay are now removed; and the measures which have been adopted in their favour have brought into general discussion the question of the impolicy of imposing civil disqualifications, on religious pretences: a discussion which may fairly be regarded as a prelude to that equal law which enjoins the same duties, and confers the same privileges, on all the denominations of religious faith.

Art. 36. *The Fig-Leaf*, a satirical and admonitory Poem. Dedicated *without* Permission to the Fashionable World. 4to. 1s. Vernor and Hood.

Formerly, it was thought that individuals could be "touched and shamed by ridicule," when they were beyond the reach of serious expostulation: but this period is passed. Now the Fashionable World are indifferent to the opinion of the multitude, and are rather gratified

gratified than mortified by satire. The "Fig-Leaf" will not alarm the ladies of the present day; who will smile at this rhiming gentleman's interference, and continue to wear as few leaves as their mother Eve, till Fashion shall command them to be more liberal of their drape-ry. Supposing, however, that Poetry could plead with the Fair, it must not be such poetry as that before us; many parts of which require a charitable fig-leaf to be put over them. After having taken notice of the pantaloons, the tasselled half boots, and the Spencers of the men, (the last of which are said to be 'just the dandy,' for the purpose, we suppose, of rhiming to 'vastly handy,') the author proceeds to the dress, or want of dress, of the Ladies:

' Excuse me, Ladies! next to you I turn,  
Your dress demands particular concern;  
Boldly you with unblushing front proclaim  
How lost your sex to modesty and shame!  
And, should the *stripping rage* much more prevail,  
Decorum's self will fling away her veil;  
And those restraints, call'd petticoats, discard,  
As LEE her *camphor-bag*, fair virtue's guard!  
Nay more — 'twill soon be burdensome to bear  
The pristine *leaf* which mother Eve did wear!  
And, since you so much wish t'attract the eye,  
(Pardon, ye fair, the muse's prophesy!)  
Methinks each buxom damsel will at last  
Bid bold defiance to the northern blast;  
And throwing off *all* clothing — *useless* gear!  
In *puris naturalibus* appear!

' No precedent can match your airy dress,  
Which, while so well contriv'd your limbs to bless  
With rheums and aches, awakens young Desire;  
Lights up the torch of Lust's unholy fire;  
And kindles passions not to be suppress'd,  
Th' unruly tyrants of the human breast!  
Your want of decency exceeds all bounds,  
And surely to your want of sense redounds.

' But lest the ladies deem me unpolite,  
And critics say, devoid of proof I write,  
See yonder fashionable *Nude* advance,  
As if just landed from licentious France,  
Where modesty, the sex's glorious pride,  
With other virtues, has been laid aside.  
Mark well her lace and other costly whims;  
The rich *transparency* that shews her limbs;  
Those painted elbows, arms and shoulders bare,  
Which more than tell us that the nymph is fair;  
Her pink silk hose, which, *blushing*, seem to say,  
"If more you wish to know of us — you may!"  
With all the flimsy pageantry, so common  
In decking out a fashionable woman;

H 3

Enough

Enough to purchase fifty suits, or more,  
Of plain and useful clothing for the poor.'

We cannot think that, in such a satirical poem as this, any reference was requisite to the clothing of Christ and his Apostles; nor that it was necessary to inform us that our Saviour's seamless vest was intended to keep his sacred body from the cold, and to add in a parenthesis,

'(For subject was he both to cold and heat,  
Which prov'd him MAN as well as GOD complete.)'

Such mixtures of ludicrous and serious ought not to be tolerated.

Art. 37. *Drunken Barnaby's four Journeys to the North of England.*  
12mo. pp. 197, 7s. Boards. Harding. 1805.

If an easy command of short doggerel rhymes, in monkish Latin, could confer celebrity, this *jeu d'esprit* might rank among works of the first reputation. The Latin is manifestly superior to the English version: but the world could very well dispense with both. At any rate, we think that a few select extracts would have been more acceptable than an entire edition. The sameness of the incidents, which are mostly confined to inebriety and vague amours, soon grows tiresome, or degenerates into disgust. The adventures of each stage are, however, dispatched with becoming brevity; as for example,

'*Veni Leicester ad Campanam,  
Ubi mentem læsi sanam;  
Prima nocte mille modis  
Flagellarunt me custodes,  
Pelle sparsi sunt fiores  
Meas castigare mores.*

'Thence I came to the Bell at Leicester,  
Where strong ale my brains did pester;  
First night besure I was admitted  
By the watchman I was whipped,  
Black and blue, like any tetter,  
Beat I was to make me better.'

Though we are not such uncourteous critics as to consign the present editor to the *practical* censure of the good town of Leicester, we cannot absolve him from the imputation of retaining the coarse and offensive passages of the former editions, without extenuation or apology.

Some lines, however, may be cited, which are rather witty than licentious. Thus,

'*In progressu boreali,  
Ut processi ab australi,  
Veni Banbury, O profanum t  
Ubi vidi Puritanum,  
Felem fariantem furem,  
Quod Sabbatq stravit murem.*

' In my progress travelling northward,  
Taking farewell of the southward,  
To Banbury came I, O profane one!  
Where I saw a Puritane one  
Hanging of his cat on Monday,  
For killing of a mouse on Sunday.'

The half-hanged piper of York is thus oddly commemorated:

' *Ibi tibicen apprehensus  
Judicatus et suspensus,  
Plastro coaptato furi,  
Ubi tibia, clamant pueri?  
Nunquam ludes amplius Billie;  
At nescitis, inquit ille.  
Quod contigerit memet teste,  
Nam abscissa jugulo veste,  
Ulin fossam furcifer vexit,  
Semi mortuus resurrexit:  
Arce reducem ocludit,  
Ubi valet, vivit, ludat.'*

The translation of these lines yields not in merit to the samples already exhibited.

In page 99, a strange blunder occurs in the translation:

' Fair for beasts at that time fell there,  
But I made my fare (fair) the cellar.'

Master Barnaby would surely have found the cellar itself a hard morsel, not well adapted to his taste for fluids.

The gravity with which the editor investigates the history of Drunken Barnaby is certainly not less ludicrous than the most laughable parts of the journal.

Art. 38. *Things as they were, as they are, and as they ought to be*, a Poem. With an earnest Address to the Land Owners of the United Kingdoms. By Thomas Tovey. 12mo. 4s. sewed. Stewart.

The preface to this volume, which occupies one-half of the work, forms a sensible essay on the present state of agriculture, and on the evils which result from the monopoly of land in the hands of a few rich farmers. The author points out the great advantage of dividing farms into small portions; and particularly he remarks on the obvious utility of allowing some allotment of land to the cottages of the Poor.—The Poem, which follows, first describes "Things as they were," or the state of the country in earlier times, when each cottager had the comfort of plenty around his door;—and in the second part are displayed, on the other hand, the evils of "grinding the faces of the poor."—Of the poetry, we cannot speak in terms of high praise.

Art. 39. *Ruth, a sacred Eclogue; and Tobit, a Poem, with two select moral Tales*; translated from the Works, and preceded by the Life of M. de Florian, Member of the Academies of France, Madrid,

drid, and Florence. By S. Maxey. Ornamented with Engravings. 12mo. 5s. boardd. Vernor and Hood. 1809.

Instead of translating a translation, we should have advised Mr. Maxey to have followed the example of Dr. Booket\*, in a poem on the apocryphal story of Tobit; and, without being a close copyist of the original, so to new form and embellish the whole as to produce something of an epic effect. Had he pursued this course, he would have freed himself from the fetters with which he appears to have been hampered, and his verse would have acquired more beauty and force. We are surprized that he should have followed M. de Florian with such servility as to put into English the line,

‘ *Fait tomber sur ses yeux un excrément impar.*’

The *muting* anecdote might safely have been spared. Mr. Maxey should have dared to mount on the wing of original conception; and then, we hope, for the credit of his muse, such couplets as these would never have occurred in his pages:

‘ Words cannot their felicity explain,  
Th’ angel thought himself in heaven again.’

‘ ’Tis him to whom my lovely bride I owe,  
’Tis him who has your sight restor’d to you.’

The prefixed life of Florian, abridged from the French memoir, will be acceptable to the English reader: but in this part of the work, Mr M. has not been sufficiently attentive to correctness. For instance, is the following passage justified by the original? ‘The labours of the field also occupied part of his time, and varied his pleasures. When hay-time, harvest, and the autumnal vintage arrived, he associated with the shepherds and shepherdesses in their daily toil.’ “*Les travaux de la campagne partageoient aussi ses momens, et varioient ses plaisirs. Quand il avoit fait une bonne action, il parcouroit les prairies de Florian, en se mêlant aux jeux innocens des bergères de cette fertile contrée.*” Here no mention is made of the vintage and the harvest; nor is any season of the year assigned for Florian’s intercourse with the sheperds and shepherdesses: but he is said to have joined with them in their innocent sports, whenever his heart was exhilarated by the performance of a good action.

M. Florian was born at the castle of Florian, in Languedoc, in 1755, and died of a fever, in 1794, in the 39th year of his age.

Of the select moral tales, subjoined to the poems of Ruth and Tobit, the first, intituled the ‘Spanish Courser,’ has a very improbable conclusion; and the second, called the ‘French Pullet,’ may suit the taste of Gallic readers, but we are surprized that Mr. M. should think it adapted to English manners.

Florian might possibly have degraded the Thames by an epithet equivalent to ‘foggy;’ and a line at p. 106.

‘ And those beside the foggy Thames.’

induced us to suspect that he had taken this liberty with our beautiful river: but, on turning to the original, we find that he has only styled it “*froid*,” cold.

\* See Rev. for May last, p. 162.

**Art. 40.** *The poetical Works of the Author of the Heroic Epistle to Sir William Chambers.* Crown 8vo. pp. 133. 4s. 6d. boards. R. Phillips 1805.

The editor of these poems is Mr. Almon, the original publisher of them individually; who informs us that, owing to the difficulty of now procuring complete sets, he has often been solicited to reprint a new and uniform edition of the whole. No doubt can be entertained that this publication will be generally acceptable; and that those who relish the humour and pointed satire, displayed in this author's admired poems, will rejoice in an opportunity of possessing the whole in one volume. Mr. Almon has not satisfied the general curiosity, by disclosing the name of the author of the *Heroic Epistle*. It has been attributed, by many, to Mr. Mason: but it is here asserted in a note, that this report has no foundation; and the author disclaims the "*Archæological Epistle*" as a production of his pen.—This collection includes the *Heroic Epistle*, *Heroic Postscript*, *Ode to Pinchbeck*, *Epistle to Dr. Shebbeare*, *Ode to Sir Fletcher Norton*, and the *Dean and the 'Squire*.

## HISTORY, &amp;c.

**Art. 41.** *The Baronetage of England, or the history of the English Baronets, and such Baronets of Scotland as are of English Families; with genealogical Tables, and Engravings of their armorial Bearings; collected from the present Baronetages, approved Historians, public Records, authentic Manuscripts, well attested Pedigrees, and personal Information. By the Rev. William Betham, Editor of the Genealogical Tables of the Sovereigns of the World.* 5 vols. 4to. 7l. 10s. boards. Miller, Lloyd, &c. 1801—1805.

This copious title-page is a sufficient indication of the nature of the undertaking. Of the particular motives to it, Mr. Betham thus speaks in the preface: 'Considering that the former compilations of this kind are extremely scarce, that numerous changes have taken place since the last was published, that several creations have been absorbed in higher titles, several extinct; and that, since the time of Wotton's writing, to the end of the year 1800, no less than 262 baronets have been added to the list; that of these many are the representatives of ancient families, who have held an important place in the community; many the descendants by collateral or female lines, of those in whom titles have become extinct; and many who have been raised to the dignity by the favour of their sovereign, as a reward for the honourable discharge of civil employment, or important duties performed in the naval or military service of the country; I shall not be deemed presumptuous in saying, that a new and correct English baronetage is an undertaking highly expedient at the present moment; and, if duly executed, worthy the public consideration and favour.'

It is of course impracticable for us to judge of the accuracy of a work of this nature: but Mr. Betham seems to have bestowed great pains and assiduity in collecting materials, and in improving the arrangement

range of his predecessors. Biographical particulars of individuals of note are so much connected with general history, that the present compilation is important in this point of view; and though genealogies and descents constitute not the most attractive reading, many events and anecdotes are here intermixed, which occasionally pierce the gloom, and amuse while they inform. From many families, Mr. B. has received the fullest information; and in some instances, perhaps, he has even been too indulgent in his communications. In the article of engravings, also, the liberality of individuals has sometimes decorated the work with ample displays of armorial bearings: but, in general, the coats of arms are represented on a diminished scale, one quarto page containing twenty shields. They are all very handsomely executed.

In the preface to Vol. IV. the editor observes that he had then completed his original undertaking: but that the augmentations of baronets during his progress, and the copiousness of his materials, induce him to add a fifth volume; which contains the baronets of the united kingdom, down to the latest moment of publication, together with a general and comprehensive index, a chronological list of baronets, and *addenda* & *corrigenda*.

The immense number of dates, names, and circumstances, occurring in a work of this description, must render it impossible to guarantee its perfect correctness; and the fluctuating nature of its subject must be perpetually creating alterations. Making allowances for these considerations, it appears to us that Mr. Betham's Baronetage deserves the countenance with which it has been assisted in its progress, and the reward of public favour in its state of completion.

Mr. B. acquaints his readers that he is preparing for the press, the histories of the baronets of Ireland and Scotland: the former of which he hopes to publish in the spring of 1806, in one volume quarto.

#### NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 42. *Account of Indian Serpents, &c. &c.* published by order of the East India Directors, under the superintendence of Patrick Russell, M.D. F.R.S. Imperial folio. Vol. II. Part II. 1l. 16s. boards. Nicol.

We announced the former parts of this publication, in M. R. vol. xxvi. N. S. p. 72. and vol. xxxix. p. 432. — In the present fasciculus, we have three of the *Anguis* genus, nine of the *Coluber*, and two of the *Boa*, elegantly figured and coloured, with descriptions and remarks. Some of these are venomous, but many of them are innocuous; and some are reputed dangerous by the natives, in which Dr. R. found no poisonous organs. He observes that the bite of venomous serpents of every age is always in some degree dangerous; and that the bite of a young *Cobra de Capello*, not more than nine inches long, proved fatal to a chicken in a few minutes.

A venomous *Coluber* received from Java, without name or memorandum, (No. 31.) was found to have large laminae on the head, and scales on the trunk not carinated: of the former of which, the celebrated French naturalist la Cépède had met with no example, except

cept in the *Coluber Naja*, and the *Coluber Hemachate*. Dr. Shaw has marked a third, in the *Coluber Porphyriacus* from New Holland.

The *Boa*, here described, do not resemble the far-famed *Boa Constrictor*, being small and harmless.

Art. 43. *Plants of the Coast of Ceromandel*. By W. Roxburgh, M.D. Vol. II. Fasciculus IV°. Folio. 3l. 10s. coloured. 1l. 1s. plain. Nicol.

With equal care and splendour, this work continues to be offered to the botanical reader; and a valuable treat it will furnish, to those who can afford the purchase. In this fasciculus, we find the subsequent plants:

*Justicia Montana*.  
—— *Pulchella*.  
*Grotiola Monniera*.  
—— *Grandiflora*.  
*Utricularia Stellaris*.  
*Rotboellia Corymbosa*.  
—— *Perforata*.  
*Guzkia Pharnaceoides*.  
*Sansevieria Zeylanica*.  
*Damasodium Indicum*.  
*Symphorema Involucratum*.  
*Laurus Involucrata*.  
*Atrageus Zeylanica*.

*Cyrilla Aquatica*.  
*Hibiscus Cannabinus*.  
*Dalbergia Volubilis*.  
—— *Scandens*.  
*Crotalaria Juncea*.  
*Hedysarum Bupleurifolium*.  
*Indigofera Linifolia*.  
*Xanthocymus Pictorius*.  
*Terminalia Chebula*.  
—— *Bellerica*.  
*Mimosa Eburnea*.  
—— *Octandra*.

The leaves of the *Sansevieria Zeylanica* contain a number of fine strong longitudinal white fibres, of which the natives make their bow-strings; and of which Dr. R. thinks the fine line is made which is called China grass, used for fishing-lines, fiddle-strings, &c. The pulp of the leaves also yields a fine clean flax, and two annual crops of leaves may be obtained in good seasons. Altogether, Dr. R. is of opinion that this plant would be very valuable for culture.

The *Crotalaria Juncea* affords hemp to the natives, and very nourishing food for their milch cows.

*Xanthocymus Pictorius* produces apples little inferior in taste to many English apples, and, if meliorated by culture, Dr. R. conjectures, would prove delicious. While green, they copiously yield a gum resembling *Gummi Gutta*, which makes a pretty good water-colour, either by itself as a yellow, or in mixture with other colours, to form green, &c.

Timber of considerable size is procured from the *Terminalia Chebula*; and the outer coat of the fruit is much used by chintz printers and dyers: its astringency serving to fix the colours of the latter, and enabling the painters to give better defined outlines to their figures. Dr. R. has also, with this outer coat and salt of steel, made a good and durable ink.—Galls are found on the leaves of this tree, with which, and alum, the best and most lasting yellow is dyed; and, in conjunction with ferruginous mud, a black is procured from them.

\* See Rev. Vol. xxxiv. N.S. p. 310, and xxxix. p. 211.

They are very astringent; and the Dr. apprehends that they are the same with the drug introduced into England under the name of Bengal Beans, *Faba Bengalensis*, and much recommended for that quality — The larva of a coccus, or chermes, also occurs on the leaves; which are replete with a bright rich yellow colour. Dr. R. thinks that, if these insects could be collected in quantities, they might prove as valuable as the cochineal insect.

A systematical Index to Vol. II. is given with this Number.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 44. *A Key to the Apostolic Writings*, by John Taylor, D.D. abridged; with a preliminary Dissertation on the Scriptures of the New Testament. By Thomas Howe. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Johnson. 1805.

From the manner in which St. Peter speaks of the Epistles of his brother apostle St. Paul, we may fairly infer that they require to be perused with attention; and that, without a key, ordinary readers will be liable to misapprehend their meaning. Perceiving the errors which prevailed among Christians from a misconception of the terms employed in the argumentative parts of Scripture, Dr. Taylor prefixed to his *Paraphrase on the Epistle to the Romans* an Essay, in which he endeavoured fully "to explain the Gospel-scheme, and the principal words and phrases which the Apostles have used in describing it;" and the very judicious and satisfactory manner, in which this learned divine conducted his undertaking, recommended it to the perusal of those who were solicitous of obtaining a clear and rational view of scripture doctrine. The intelligent mind of the Bishop of Landaff appreciated its value, and inserted it among the tracts which he selected for the use of theological students in the University. Excepting, however, in this instance, it has never been published separately from the paraphrase; and we regard Mr. Howe as having been very usefully employed in not only exhibiting it as a detached publication, but in freeing it from that perplexity which appertains to it in its original form, and by which it becomes tiresome to common readers. His abridgement is indeed executed with care and ability; and the whole is so well concatenated as to afford a complete idea of Dr. Taylor's scheme, and to supersede the necessity of having recourse to the original essay. Dr. Taylor's mode of explaining the words *Election, Justification, made Sinners, made righteous, &c.* might have led him to a different statement of the doctrine of atonement, from that which is to be found in the 8th chapter; in which Mr. Howe admits that some obscurity exists, though he does not consider himself as warranted in presenting the subject in another point of view.

The preliminary dissertation includes short remarks on the histories of the N. T., on the doctrines and precepts of Christianity, on the prophecies contained in the N. T., and on the apostolic Epistles. It forms a suitable introduction to the essay which Mr. Howe has abridged, is a proof that he has perused the Scriptures with a reflecting mind, and will no doubt be very acceptable to many pious readers.

Art. 45. *A Dissertation on the best Means of civilizing the Subjects of the British Empire in India, and of diffusing the Light of the Christian Religion through the Eastern World.* By Francis Wrangham, M. A. F. R. S. 4to. 3s. Mawman. 1855.

Though prophecy teaches us to anticipate the universal extension of the Gospel, and though its superior excellence, compared with every other religious system, will induce all benevolent minds to desire the acceleration of its triumphs, it must be confessed that at present enormous difficulties obstruct its progress, and that we cannot as yet penetrate the methods by which Providence will ultimately accomplish the purposes of Grace. The good Christian can much more easily pray for the conversion of the unbelieving world, than project feasible plans for its accomplishment. We hear and read indeed much on this subject, but what has been done? Europeans, in their intercourse with the negroes of Africa, with the savages of America, and with the more civilized yet superstitious natives of populous Asia, have by their conduct reflected so little credit on the religion which they professed, that antipathy against rather than veneration for the Christian Religion must have been excited in the bosoms of the natives. Is it likely that the work of proselytism will succeed in our hands; or that a few missionaries, however active and conscientious, will be able to counteract the impression made on the inhabitants of the East by our general system of conduct? Providence, it is true, can bring good out of evil, and turn the interested speculations of commerce, and the bloody marches of ambition, to purposes which did not enter into the contemplation of the original actors; and so far we may hope that the Empire, which we have established in India, will be made subservient to the diffusion of the Light of the Christian Religion over that part of the world: though, perhaps, any measures now particularly directed to that end will prove abortive. Mr. Wrangham, with all his zeal for the advancement of true religion, is aware that the English in India are awkwardly situated for preaching the Gospel. He admits that 'in our intercourse with this unhappy country we have been hitherto anxious to increase the number, rather than to promote the welfare of our subjects; that there are on record numerous instances of mercantile and military abuse, and of speculators who have desolated her streets with famine, and drenched her fields with blood;' yet he ventures to hope that we shall make them ample compensation for the enormous evils which we have occasioned. With poetic boldness he predicts that 'from our commerce they will obtain affluence, from our manners civilization, from our instruction manliness and independence. A certain portion of our spirit of freedom will be diffused under all the disadvantages of climate, over the plains of Hindostan; and the divine genius of the Gospel will confer emancipation on millions, who are now groaning under the heavy yoke of Brahminical superstition.' If they are not to taste the genius of the Gospel till they are enriched by our commerce, we fear that their conversion is at a remote distance.

Among the measures recommended by Mr. W. for the advancement of true religion in Hindostan, are the destruction of the pre-  
dominancy

dominancy of the Hindoo priesthood, and the establishment of a Christian Cast or tribe. We shall make no other comment on this curious project, than to ask what service has been rendered to Proselytism in Ireland by destroying the predominance of the Catholic Clergy, and erecting a Protestant Cast? Is not more zeal than discretion apparent in such advice? After having sketched the civil and religious wretchedness of Hindostan, Mr. W. might console himself with the outline of improvement which he has traced, and with hailing, in a style of poetic fervour, her dawning glories: but we must consider his Dissertation as displaying amiable enthusiasm rather than sound judgment.

It appears that this essay also, as well as Mr. W.'s poem noticed in our number for May last, was written in competition for the prizes lately proposed on these subjects at Cambridge, and was likewise unsuccessful. Mr. W. therefore may say that the choice of the subject rested not with him: but the arguments are his own, and of the theme itself he is the parent by adoption.

Art 46. *Two Masonic Addresses*, delivered in the Lodge of Freedom, No. 89, Gravesend, December 27th, 1803, being the Anniversary of the Festival of St. John the Evangelist, by Brother Killick, R. W. M.; and Brother John Bryan, I. W. Published at the Request of the Lodge. 8vo. 1s. Asperne. 1804.

Of these two addresses, the first, which is also the shortest, seems to be the best; and it receives a considerable share of respect from its companion. From each of these harangues, we are led to conclude that Masonry and Virtue are the same; and that the former may be styled, 'if the phrase is allowable, the agriculturist of the human mind,—whose aim is to enrich it with stores of knowledge, both useful and ornamental,—between whom and religion there is a close connection.' Since such are the spirit and purpose of a Masonic lodge, we cannot wonder that Brother Bryan unites with his Superior in earnest exhortations to his brethren to appear as champions in its cause, in opposition to all profligacy of conduct, and to all infidelity respecting divine revelation:—'If that sacred volume, which is most deservedly styled, by way of just pre-eminence, *The Book*, is to be considered as a fable, what, I would ask, is to become of all that is dear and valuable to *Masons*?—nay, to all *mankind*?'

Art. 47. *Galerio and Nerisso*, including original Correspondence, the History of an English Nobleman and Lady; several poetical Effusions, and a few domestic Anecdotes. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Jordan and Co.

It may be doubted whether readers in general will be much interested by the subject of this correspondence: but some will be occasionally affected by the events which occur, and will give way to emotions of tenderness and compassion. The incidents, the author informs us, are not the idle fiction of the moment, but a faithful relation of well-authenticated facts; and the period, to which they are said to belong, is the latter part of the reign of James the Second. Whether they may be deemed real or fictitious, it is but justice to the writer to state that he has not attempted, as is too often the case,

by gross improbabilities or licentious descriptions, to disturb the imaginations or corrupt the hearts of his readers.

The poems, which are subjoined to the letters, are in many instances agreeable and well written compositions of the kind, though various errors and defects occurred to our notice.

Art. 48. *Observations on the West-India Dock Salaries*, in a Letter addressed to Randle Jackson, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

This writer contends that the honour and patronage attached to the situation ought to satisfy the Directors of the West-India Docks for their trouble, without pecuniary remunerations in the form of salaries. It is true that the Bank and East-India Directors have salaries: but the Dock Directors must not, it is hinted, presume to quote such high authorities. 'Masters only of one solitary million, (says the author of this letter,) it ill behoves us to assimilate ourselves to the makers of money and the rulers of men.'

Art. 49. *A calm Appeal to the Consciences of the Bank Directors*. By Henry White, seventeen Years a Clerk in the Bank of England. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Morton.

When appeals are made to the public, complaining of personal injury, the whole of the case should be most fully stated. Mr. White has not explained the supposed ground of his dismission from the service of the Bank Directors; he only avers his *honour* and *integrity*; which perhaps no individual calls in question. We shall not hazard the slightest conjecture respecting the nature of this gentleman's offence, but we feel for him on the score of mortification and pecuniary loss; and we hope that the Bank Directors, whether they be or be not moved by his calm appeal, will attend to the hints of a public nature which he has suggested: particularly to that which respects the affixing a mark on every person's transfer who is selling stock, if any dividend remains due on it; and that the person be asked whether he has received the same; for it often happens that stock is sold, when the dividend due previously to the transfer is never received, the individual ignorantly supposing that it belonged to the person to whom the stock is transposed.

Art. 50. *A Letter to the Rev. George Burder*, occasioned by his Sermon on Lawful Amusements; preached at the Thursday Evening Lecture, Fetter-Lane, Jan. 10, 1805. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds.

Art. 51. *Postscript to the Letter to the Rev. George Burder*, occasioned by his Appendix to his Sermon on Lawful Amusements. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds. 1805.

Temporary relaxation from business being as necessary to maintain the vigour of our faculties, as the unstringing of the bow to preserve its elasticity, amusements (abstractedly considered) cannot be pronounced either unlawful or immoral. Like many other things, however, they are not only capable of being abused, but are in fact greatly perverted. The preacher, when he adverts to this subject, is bound to discriminate between the use and the abuse of amusements, and should offer directions by which our morals may be protected in the hours of relaxation:

relaxation: but he is no more justified in loose and general declamations against amusements than against the ordinary callings of life; for these, like the former, are capable of being prosecuted to a vicious excess. On this ground, the author of the Letter and Postscript before us joins issue with Mr. Barber; to whom we recommend the consideration of these sensible hints. Ground for reprehension certainly exists in our theatrical exhibitions, which it should be the study of those who preside over and control them to remove: but it is absurd to contend that the pleasures which result from the drama are incompatible with the duties of a Christian.—The Letter-writer's object is to expostulate with the preacher on his narrow and gloomy views of religion; to induce him to be more liberal and temperate in his censures; and to convince him that admonition, in order to its being really persuasive and useful, must be the result of good sense.

Art. 52. *Typographical Marks, used in correcting Proofs, explained and exemplified; for the Use of Authors.* By C. Stower, Printer. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

In a concise form, and at a cheap rate, Mr. Stower has given to young authors some useful advice on the mode of correcting Proofs, of which they are generally very ignorant, and by which ignorance the Printers are often much incommoded: but he should have also apprized them that there is such a book as the Printer's Grammar, where all the information contained in his pamphlet is to be found. Mr. Stower has indeed exemplified the application of the typographical marks in an annexed plate, which is a more specific mode than the Printer's Grammar exhibits.

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#### CORRESPONDENCE.

*A Constant Reader* informs us that, in consequence of our suggestion, in the account of the *Dictionnaire des Sciences Naturelles*, 'preparations have for some time been making, on an extensive scale, for publishing a work in which, though provision is made for other interesting matters, the *Natural Sciences*, and their relations to Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, &c. will be primary objects of attention.' He adds that no labour will be spared in collecting every useful fact of foreign or domestic intelligence; and that the size of the work will be according to our recommendation in reviewing *Sonnini's Dict. of Nat. History*, namely, 8vo. with 4to plates.—We have not yet obtained the additional *livraison* of the *Dict. des Sciences Naturelles*, mentioned by our correspondent.

We have received a letter from Professor Lealie, acquainting us that he did not see Count Rumford's statement respecting his Experiments on Heat, inserted in our last month's Correspondence, time enough to enable him to reply to it in this Review: but that his intention is to prepare an answer for publication in our October number.

It does not occur to us that we have made any promise on the subject to which our correspondent at Manchester refers.

\* \* \* The APPENDIX to VOL. XLVII. of the M. R. is published with this Number.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1805.

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ART. I. *Madoc*, by Robert Southey. 4to. pp. 560. 2l. 2s.  
Boards. Printed at Edinburgh, for Longman and Co., London.  
1805.

IT has fallen to the lot of this writer to puzzle our critical discernment more than once. In the *Annual Anthology*, we had reason to complain that it was difficult to distinguish his jocular from his serious poetry; and sometimes indeed to know his poetry from prose. He has now contrived to manufacture a large quarto, which he has styled a poem, but of what description it is no easy matter to decide. The title of epic, which he indignantly disclaims, we might have been inclined to refuse his production, had it been claimed; and we suppose that Mr. Southey would not suffer it to be classed under the mock-heroic. The poem of *Madoc* is not didactic, nor elegiac, nor classical, in any respect. Neither is it *Macphersonian*, nor *Klopstockian*, nor *Darwinian*,—we beg pardon, we mean *Brookian*. To conclude, according to a phrase of the last century, which was applied to ladies of ambiguous character, *it is what it is*.—As Mr. Southey has set the rules of Aristotle at defiance in his preface, we hope that he will feel a due degree of gratitude for this appropriate definition of his work. It is an old saying, thoroughly descriptive of such an old song as this before us.

Mr. Southey, however, has not disdained all antient precedents in his poem, for he introduces it with this advertisement:

‘Come, listen to a tale of times of old!  
Come, for ye know me! I am he who sung  
The maid of Arc; and I am he who framed  
Of Thalaba the wild and wondrous song.  
Come, listen to my lay, and ye shall hear  
How Madoc from the shores of Britain spread  
The adventurous sail, explored the ocean ways,  
And quelled barbarian power, and overthrew  
The bloody altars of idolatry,

And planted in its fanes triumphantly  
The cross of Christ. Come, listen to my lay!

This *modest ostentation* was certainly derived from the verses imputed to Virgil;

"*Ille ego, qui quondam gracili modulatus avena  
Carmen; et egressus sylvis, vicina cœgi  
Ut quamvis avido parerent arva colono,  
Gratum opus agricolis: at nunc horrentia Martis, &c.*"

In the very first part of the poem, also, we find Mr. Southey pursuing the Horatian precept, "*prorumpere in medias res*;" for he commences with the *return* of Madoc to his native country. It is true that, like the Messenger in Macklin's tragedy, he "goes but to return;" and the critic is tempted to say, with Martial, *toto carere possum*.—Thus the grand interest of the work, which ought to consist in exploring a new world, is destroyed at once, by the reader at his outset encountering the heroes returning "sound, wind and limb," to their native country. It may be said that Camoëns has thrown a great part of Da Gama's Voyage into the form of a narrative: but he has also given much in description; enough, at least, to have justified Mr. Southey in commencing rather nearer the commencement of his tale.

That he might withdraw himself entirely from the yoke of Aristotle, Mr. Southey has divided his poem into two parts, instead of giving it a beginning, a middle, and an end. One of these parts is concisely intitled, 'Madoc in Wales;' the other, 'Madoc in Aztlan.' A *middle* might, however, have been easily found, by adding, *Madoc on Shipboard*.—The first of these Anti Peripatetic parts contains 18 divisions; the second, 27, which include every incident, episode, &c. introduced into the poem. This arrangement gives it very much the appearance of a journal versified, and effectually precludes any imputation of luxuriance of fancy in the plot.

Respecting the manners, Mr. Southey appears to have been more successful than in his choice of the story. He has adhered to history where he could discover any facts adapted to his purpose; and when history failed him, he has had recourse to probability. Yet we own that the nomenclature of his heroes has shocked what Mr. S. would call our prejudices. *Georvyl* and *Ririd* and *Rodri* and *Llaian* may have charms for Cambrian ears, but who can feel an interest in *Tezozomoc*, *Tlalala*, or *Ocelopan*? Or, should

————— 'Tyneio, Merini,  
Boda and Brenda and Aelgyvarch,  
Gwynon and Celynin and Gwynodyl,' (p. 129.)

"Those

"Those rugged names to our like mouths grow sleek,  
That would have made Quintilian stare and gasp \*,"

how could we swallow *Yubidhtton*, *Coanocotzin*, and, above all, the yawning jaw-dislocating *Ayayaca*? — These torturing words, particularly the latter, remind us so strongly of the odious cacophony of the Nurse and Child, that they really are not to be tolerated. Mr. Southey's defence (for he has partially anticipated this objection) is that the names are conformable to history or analogy, which we are not inclined to dispute: but it is not requisite to tread so closely in the traces of barbarity. Truth does not constitute the essence of poetry: but it is indispensably necessary that the lines should be agreeable to the ear, as well as to the sense. Sorry, indeed, we are to complain that Mr. Southey, in attempting a new method of writing,—in professing to set aside the old models, and to promote his own work to a distinguished place in the library,—has failed to interest our feelings, or to excite our admiration. The dull tenor of mediocrity, which characterizes his pages, is totally unsuitable to heroic poetry, regular or irregular. Instead of viewing him on a *fiery Pegasus*, and "snatching a grace beyond the reach of art," we behold the author mounted on a strange animal, something between a rough Welsh poney and a Peruvian sheep, whose utmost capriole only tends to land him in the mud. We may indeed safely compliment Mr. Southey, by assuring him that there is nothing in Homer, Virgil, or Milton, in any degree resembling the beauties of *Madoc*.

Whether the expedition of *Madoc*, and the existence of a Welsh tribe in America, be historically true, it is not our present business to examine. It is obvious, however, that one great object of the poem, the destruction of the altars of idolatry, had failed; for it is not pretended that the supposed descendants of *Madoc* remained Christians.

We shall now make some extracts from this poem, which will enable our readers to judge whether we have spoken too severely of Mr. Southey's labours.

\* Fair smiled the evening, and the favouring gale  
Sung merrily, and swift the steady bark  
Rushed roaring through the waves.

The sun goes down.  
Far off his light is on the naked crags  
Of Penmanmawr, and Arvon's ancient hills;  
And the last glory lingers yet awhile,  
Crowning old Snowden's venerable head,  
That rose amid his mountains. Now the ship

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\* Milton.

Drew nigh where Mona, the dark island, stretched  
 Her shore along the ocean's lighter line.  
 There through the mist and twilight, many a fire  
 Up flaming, streamed upon the level sea  
 Red lines of lengthening light, that, far away  
 Rising and falling, flashed athwart the waves.  
 At that did many a thought of ill disturb  
 Prince Madoc's mind : . . . did some new conqueror seize  
 The throne of David ? had the tyrant's guilt  
 Awakened vengeance to the deed of death ?  
 Or blazed they for a brother's obsequies,  
 The sport and mirth of murder ? . . . Like the lights  
 Which there upon Aberfraw's royal walls  
 Are waving with the wind, the painful doubt  
 Fluctuates within him. . . Onward drives the gale,  
 On flies the bark, . . and she hath reached at length  
 Her haven, safe from her unequalled way !  
 And now in louder and yet louder joy,  
 Clamorous, the happy mariners all-hail  
 Their native shore, and now they leap to land.

\* There stood an old man on the beach, to wait  
 The comers from the ocean ; and he asked,  
 Is it the Prince ? And Madoc knew his voice,  
 And turned to him, and fell upon his neck ;  
 For it was Urien, who had fostered him,  
 Had loved him like a child ; and Madoc loved,  
 Even as a father loved he that old man.

\* My sister ? quoth the prince. . . Oh, she and I  
 Have wept together, Madoc, for thy loss, . .  
 That long and cruel absence ! . . She and I,  
 Hour after hour, and day by day, have looked  
 Towards the waters, and with aching eyes,  
 And aching heart, sate watching every sail.

\* And David, and our brethren ? cried the prince,  
 As they moved on. . . . But then old Urien's lips  
 Were slow at answer ; and he spake, and paused  
 In the first breath of utterance, as to chuse  
 Fit words for uttering some unhappy tale.  
 More blood, quoth Madoc, yet ! Hath David's fear  
 Forced him to still more cruelty ? Alas . . .  
 Woe for the house of Owen !

\* Evil stars,  
 Replied the old man, ruled o'er thy brethren's birth.  
 From Dolwyddelan driven, his peaceful home,  
 Poor Yorwerth sought the church's sanctuary ;  
 The murderer followed ! . . Madoc, need I say  
 Who sent the sword ? . . . Llewelyn, his brave boy,  
 Where wanders he ? in this his rightful realm,  
 Houseless and hunted ! richly would the king

Gift the red hand that rid him of that fear !  
 Ririd, an outlawed fugitive, as yet  
 Eludes his brother's fury ; Rodri lives,  
 A prisoner he, . . I know not in what fit  
 Of natural mercy, from the slaughter spared.  
 Oh, if my dear old master saw the wreck  
 And scattering of his house ! . . that princely race !  
 The beautiful band of brethren that they were ?

This long passage contains instances of Mr. Southey's peculiarity of manner, both in his success and failure. The description is sometimes striking, and even brilliant for a moment ; but the action and the manners are heavy, and we must add, mean. We will repeat, at the hazard of being called prejudiced and pedantic, that this is not the simplicity of Homer and Milton ; and that an historical poem requires elevation in the thought and language. If the author cannot support his work with proper dignity, he should choose a different task.

We shall again try the effect of a rather long quotation from another part of the work. It is the song of Caradoc, the bard :

' Last of the aspirants, as of greener years,  
 Young Caradoc advanced : his lip as yet  
 Scarce darkened with its down, his flaxen locks  
 Wreathed in contracting ringlets waving low ;  
 His large blue eyes were bright, and kindled now  
 With that same passion that inflamed his cheek ;  
 Yet in his cheek there was the sickliness  
 Which thought and feeling leave, wearing away  
 The hue of youth. Inclining on his harp,  
 He, while his comrades in probation song  
 Approved their claim, stood hearkening, as it seemed,  
 And yet like unintelligible sounds  
 He heard the symphony and voice attuned ;  
 Even in such feelings as, all undefined,  
 Come with the flow of waters to the soul,  
 Or with the motions of the moonlight sky.  
 But when his bidding came, he at the call  
 Arising from the dreamy mood, advanced,  
 Threw back his mantle, and began the lay.

' Where are the sons of Gavran ? where his tribe,  
 The faithful ? following their beloved Chief,  
 They the Green Islands of the Ocean sought.  
 Nor human tongue hath told, nor human ear,  
 Since from the silver shores they went their way,  
 Hath heard their fortunes. In his crystal Ark,  
 Whither sailed Merlin with his band of Bards,  
 Old Merlin, master of the mystic lore ?  
 Belike his crystal Ark, instinct with life,  
 Obedient to the mighty Master, reached

The Land of the Departed ; there, belike,  
 They in the clime of immortality,  
 Themselves immortal, drink the gales of bliss,  
 That o'er Flathinnis breathe the eternal spring,  
 That blend whatever odours make the gale  
 Of evening sweet, whatever melody  
 Charms the wood traveller. In their high-roofed halls,  
 There, with the Chiefs of other days, feel they  
 The mingled joy pervade them ? . Or beneath  
 The mid sea waters, did that crystal Ark  
 Down to the secret depths of Ocean plunge  
 Its fated crew ? Dwell they in coral bowers  
 With Mermaid loves, teaching their paramours  
 The songs that stir the sea, or make the winds  
 Hush, and the waves be still ? In fields of joy  
 Have they their home, where central fires maintain  
 Perpetual summer, where one emerald light  
 Through the green element for ever flows ?

• Twice have the sons of Britain left her shores,  
 As the fledged eaglets quit their native nest ;  
 Twice over ocean have her fearless sons  
 For ever sailed away Again they launch  
 Their vessels to the deep. . . Who mounts the bark ?  
 The Son of Owen, the beloved Prince,  
 Who never for injustice reared his arm.  
 Respect his enterprize, ye Ocean Waves !  
 Ye Winds of Heaven, waft Madoc on his way !  
 The Waves of Ocean, and the Winds of Heaven  
 Became his ministers, and Madoc found  
 The world he sought.

Who seeks the better land ?  
 Who mounts the vessel for the world of peace ?  
 He who hath felt the throb of pride, to hear  
 Our old illustrious annals ; who was taught  
 To lisp the fame of Arthur, to revere  
 Our Caratach's unconquered soul, and call  
 That gallant chief, his countryman, who led  
 The wrath of Britain, from her chalky shores  
 To drive the roman robber. He who loves  
 His country, and who feels his country's shame,  
 Whose bones amid a land of servitude  
 Could never rest in peace ; who, if he saw  
 His children slaves, would feel a pang in heaven, . .  
 He mounts the bark, to seek for liberty.  
 Who seeks the better land ? The wretched one,  
 Whose joys are blasted all, whose heart is sick,  
 Who hath no hope, to whom all change is gain,  
 To whom remembered pleasures strike a pang  
 Which on y guilt should know, . . he mounts the bark.  
 The Bard will mount the bark of banishment ;

The

The harp of Cambria shall, in other lands,  
Remind the Cambrian of his fathers fame ; . .  
The Bard will seek the land of liberty,  
The world of peace. . . . O Prince, receive the Bard !

• He ceased the song. His cheek, now fever-flushed,  
Was turned to Madoc, and his asking eye  
Lingered on him in hope ; nor lingered long  
The look expectant ; forward sprung the Prince,  
And stretched to Caradoc the right-hand pledge,  
And for the comrade of his enterprize,  
With joyful welcome, hailed the joyful Bard.

• Nor needed now the Searcher of the Sea  
Announce his enterprize, by Caradoc  
In song announced so well ; from man to man  
The busy murmur spread, while from the Stone  
Of Covenant the sword was taken up,  
And from the Circle of the Ceremony  
The Bards went forth, their meeting now fulfilled.  
The multitude, unheeding all beside,  
Of Madoc and his noble enterprize  
Held stirring converse on their homeward way,  
And spread abroad the tidings of the Land,  
Where Plenty dwelt with Liberty and Peace.'

It is evident, on a review of this passage, that even the touches of better poetry, which may be remarked in the lay of the bard, are injured by rusticity aping simplicity.—The recurrence of the word 'belike' is unhappy, and the meeting is dissolved more in the style of a field-preaching, than of the august assembly which the author meant to describe.

Now for the truth of Costume :

' Now the Messenger  
Entered the hall ; Goagan of Powys-land,  
He of Caer-Einion was it, who was charged  
From Gwyneth to Deheubarth ; a brave man,  
Of copious speech. He told the royal son  
Of Gryffidd, the descendant of the line  
Of Rys-ab-Tudyr-mawr, that he came there,  
From David, son of Owen, of the stock  
Of kingly Cynan. I am sent, said he,  
With friendly greeting ; and as I receive  
Welcome and honour, so, in David's name,  
Am I to thank the Lord of Dinevawr.'

This may be very delightful on the *Wye*, but it does not stir our hearts on the banks of the Thames.

It would only fatigue the patience of the reader, to pursue the course of this ponderous work. A greater waste of exertion we have seldom witnessed, and a more severe trial of our

Southey's *Madoc*, a Poem.

patience we have hardly ever sustained. We shall therefore close our extracts with the description of Madoc's single combat with an Indian, in which the author has all the advantage of novelty in describing his infidel :

‘ The King of Aztlan  
Heard and beheld, and in his noble heart  
Heroic hope arose. Forward he moved,  
And, in the shock of battle, front to front,  
Encountered Madoc. A strong statured man  
Coanocotzin stood, one well who knew  
The ways of war, and never yet, in fight,  
Had found an equal foe. Adown his back  
Hung the long robe of feathered royalty ;  
Gold fenced his arms and legs ; upon his helm  
A sculptured snake protends the arrowy tongue ;  
Around, a coronet of plumes arose,  
Brighter than beam the rainbow hues of light,  
Or than the evening glories, which the sun  
Slants o’er the moving many-coloured sea,  
Such their surpassing beauty ; bells of gold  
Embossed his glittering helmet, and where’er  
Their sound was heard, there lay the press of war,  
And Death was busiest there. Over the breast,  
And o’er the golden breastplate of the King,  
A feathery cuirass, beautiful to eye,  
Light as the robe of peace, yet strong to save ;  
For the sharp faulchion’s baffled edge would glide  
From its smooth softness. On his arm he held  
A buckler, overlaid with beaten gold.  
And so he stood, guarding his thighs and legs,  
His breast and shoulders also, with the length  
Of his broad shield.

‘ Opposed, in mail complete,  
Stood Madoc in his strength. The flexible chains  
Gave play to his full muscles, and displayed  
How broad his shoulders, and his ample breast.  
Small was his shield, there broadest where it fenced  
The well of life, and gradual to a point  
Lessening ; steel-strong, and wieldy in his grasp,  
It bore those blazoned eaglets, at whose sight,  
Along the Marches, or where holy Dee  
Through Cestrian pastures rolls his tamer stream,  
So oft the yeoman had, in days of yore,  
Cursing his perilous tenure, wound the horn,  
And warden, from the castle-tower, rung out  
The loud alarum-bell, heard far and wide.  
Upon his helm no sculptured dragon sate,  
Sate no fantastic terrors ; a white plume  
Nodded above, far-seen, floating like foam

On the war-tempest. Man to man they stood,  
The King of Aztlan and the Ocean Chief.

‘Fast, on the intervening buckler, fell  
The Azteca’s stone faulchion. Who hath watched  
The midnight lightnings of the summer storm,  
That, with their awful blaze, irradiate heaven,  
Then leave a blacker night? so quick, so fierce  
Flashed Madoc’s sword, which, like the serpent’s tongue,  
Seemed double in its rapid whirl of light.  
Unequal arms! for on the British shield  
Availed not the stone faulchion’s brittle edge,  
And, in the golden buckler, Madoc’s sword  
Bit deep. Coanocotzin saw, and dropt  
The unprofitable weapon, and received  
His ponderous club, . . . that club, beneath whose force,  
Driven by his father’s arm, Tepollomi  
Had fallen subdued, . . . and fast and fierce he drove  
The massy weight on Madoc. From his shield,  
The deadening force, communicated, ran  
Up his stunned arm; anon, upon his helm,  
Crashing, it came; . . . his eyes shot fire, his brain  
Swam dizzy, . . . he recoils, . . . he reels, . . . again  
The club descends.

‘That danger to himself  
Recalled the Lord of Ocean. On he sprung,  
Within the falling weapon’s curve of death,  
Shunning its frustrate aim, and breast to breast  
He grappled with the King. The pliant mail  
Bent to his straining limbs, while plates of gold,  
The feathery robe, the buckler’s amplitude,  
Cumbered the Azteca, and from his arm,  
Clenched in the Briton’s mighty grasp, at once  
He dropt the impeding buckler, and let fall  
The unfastened club; which when the Prince beheld,  
He thrust him off, and, drawing back, resumed  
The sword which from his wrist suspended hung,  
And twice he smote the king; twice from the quilt  
Of plumes the iron glides; and lo! the King,  
So well his soldiers watched their monarch’s need,  
Shakes in his hand a spear.

‘But now a cry  
Burst on the ear of Madoc, and he saw  
Through opening ranks, where Urien was conveyed  
A captive, to his death. Grief, then, and shame  
And rage inspired him. With a mighty blow  
He cleft Coanocotzin’s helm; exposed  
The monarch stood; . . . again the thunder stroke  
Came on him, and he fell. . . . The multitude,  
Forgetful of their country and themselves,  
Crowd round their dying King.’

If the perusal of these and the preceding verses should tempt any of our readers to purchase Mr. Southey's volume, we can warrant equal entertainment in all its other parts, and shall heartily wish the gentleman all happiness with his poet.—To us, there appears a thorough perversion of taste, in the conception and execution of the whole; and we are disgusted with the tameness of the verse, the vulgarity of the thoughts, and the barbarity of the manners. If this style of writing be continued, we may expect not only the actions of Vindomarus or Ariovistus to be celebrated, but we may perhaps see the history of the Cherokees, Choctaws, and Catabaws, versified in quarto. The name of Atakulla-kulla would be not inharmonious, compared with some of Mr. Southey's heroes. Indeed, a very interesting poem might be founded on the story of Pocahuntas, as it is detailed by Smith, in his History of the Settlement of Virginia; and if Mr. Southey should meditate another irruption into the territories of the Muse, we would recommend this subject to his attention.

It must be remarked that this is a very handsome and elegantly printed book, with engraved title-pages, vignettes, &c. and had the poet equalled the printer, his work might have stood on the same shelf with those of our most admired writers.

**ART. II. *History of the Progress and present State of Animal Chemistry.***

By W. B. Johnson, M. B. 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards.  
Johnson.

**T**HAT part of chemistry, which treats of animal substances, is yet in a much more imperfect state than any other branch of the science. This deficiency arises, in a great measure, from the peculiar nature of these substances; their composition is less simple, and the elements of which they are composed are less intimately united together, than the generality of either vegetable or mineral bodies; while the tendency which the component parts have to enter into new combinations, or to assume the gaseous form, renders the results of their analysis complicated and uncertain. It is to be attributed to these causes, rather than to any want of interest in the subject, that so little progress has been made in this part of chemistry; for both in our own country and in France, some of the most distinguished experimenters have devoted to it a large share of their attention. Hence, though experiments are daily multiplied, few general principles are obtained; and it becomes continually more difficult to acquire and retain a knowledge of the real advances in animal chemistry, and of the

doubtful points which still remain to be investigated. It is obvious, from these considerations alone, that a work, which shall present a faithful detail of the successive discoveries that have been made in the chemistry of animal bodies, and a perspicuous view of the present state of the science, will be of essential service to those who are interested in its promotion.

The first requisite for the proper accomplishment of this task is diligence in the collection of materials : but this is perhaps the least difficult part of the undertaking. Owing to the peculiar nature of the subject, much discernment must be exerted in the selection of those circumstances which are justly intitled to the rank of well authenticated facts, from the large mass of undigested matter ; in accurately ascertaining the degree of importance which should be attached to any individual experiment ; and in deciding between opposing, and sometimes apparently equal authorities. He who undertakes to produce a complete system of animal chemistry will very frequently have his judgment exercised on all these points. The cause, which has tended in a great degree to produce this state of uncertainty, is the circumstance that many of the experiments, in this department of chemistry, have been performed by physiologists, for the express purpose of establishing some favourite theory ; in consequence of which, they have not unfrequently rather obtained the result which they desired, than that which would have been deduced by an impartial observer,

The publication before us embraces a wide range of subjects. The author has not confined himself to investigating the properties of the component parts of the animal body, but presents us with a full view of those functions which are supposed, in a greater or less proportion, to depend on the operation of chemical principles ; and he has even introduced an account of some of the processes, in which chemical agents are employed to convert animal substances into articles of manufacture.

Mr. Johnson immediately commences by classing the component parts of the animal body under the following heads ; fluids, solids, hard parts, external parts, oils, acids, poisons, aromatics, colouring matter, concretions, and excrements. We think that this plan is in many respects objectionable ; and it would, in our opinion, have much contributed to the perspicuity of the work, if the author had begun by giving a general account of the different animal substances in their separate state, before he had entered on the consideration of the complicated mixtures which actually exist in the different parts of the body. Independently, however, of this circumstance, the arrangement itself appears to us open to many animadversions. Perhaps the best principle of classification is a similarity of  
chemical

chemical properties; or if the science be not deemed sufficiently advanced to admit of this division, the substances might be arranged according to the probable uses which they serve in the animal economy:—but the method pursued by Mr. Johnson, while it separates the bodies which seem naturally connected, classes together those which are united only by the circumstance of their being hard or soft, being placed in the inside or on the outside of the body, or some other equally unessential character. We should have preferred throwing the substances into the alphabetical form, to so feeble an attempt at arrangement as that which is here adopted.

The volumes necessarily consist of a succession of subjects, not very intimately connected together. We propose, therefore, to select a few sections, and to examine these with some degree of minuteness; as we think that, by this mode, our readers will be the best enabled to form a correct idea of the execution of the work. We shall first select the account of the blood; which is justly intitled to our notice, both from the importance of the subject itself, and because it affords a fair idea of the merits of the performance.

After having described the various appearances which the blood assumes, according as it is examined in the different parts of the body, or in different states of the constitution, the author proceeds to enumerate its sensible and more obvious properties. Among other circumstances, he informs us that 'its heat is different in the different orders of animals; human blood, and that of quadrupeds and birds, is about  $96^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit, or  $32^{\circ}$  of Reaumur, whilst, in oviparous quadrupeds, serpents, and fish, it is at the temperature of the medium they inhabit. The arterial blood is likewise warmer than the venous.' In this paragraph, we believe, several inaccuracies may be pointed out; the temperature of man, and of the more perfect quadrupeds, is estimated by the most correct physiologists at  $98^{\circ}$ ; that of birds is still higher, varying from  $102^{\circ}$  to  $104^{\circ}$ ; and the temperature of the cold blooded animals is not the same with that of the medium which they inhabit, but is a little superior to it. With respect to the comparative heat of arterial and venous blood, Mr. Coleman, one of the latest and most accurate writers on the subject, states, contrary to the statement of the present author, that the blood in the right ventricle is a degree or two warmer than that in the left.

In the account of the spontaneous coagulation of the blood, we are told that this process is retarded by the exclusion of atmospheric air. Hewson and other respectable physiologists have, no doubt, maintained this doctrine: but it ought to have been mentioned that the directly contrary opinion is supported  
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by at last equal authority, viz. that of Mr. Hunter and of MM. Parmentier and Deyeux. The same remark will apply to the author's account of the effects of oxygenous gas; for though it has been asserted by some that it considerably expedites coagulation, other experimentalists, of acknowledged accuracy, have obtained precisely opposite results.

Having given an account of the blood in its entire state, Mr. Johnson undertakes the examination of the substances into which it spontaneously separates itself, viz. the serum and the crassamentum. The properties of the serum are enumerated with considerable minuteness, but not with perfect accuracy. In the figures which denote its specific gravity, there must be an error of the press; Jurin (whom we conceive to be the author here quoted) estimates it at .0287. No mention is made of the effect of the oxy muriate of mercury, the acetate of lead, and some other metallic salts in the coagulation of serum; nor is any notice taken of the action of the tanning principle on it. It is stated, in general terms, that the caustic alkalis dissolve concrete serum: but we expected a more particular account of the effects of ammoniac, which has been considered by Fourcroy as its most perfect solvent.—Mr. J. concludes by observing that 'the serum of the blood is the albuminous part of it; and that it consists of albumen, a little gelatine, sulphur, muriate and carbonate of soda, and phosphate of lime.' It is, however, universally admitted that the soda exists in the blood in the caustic state; and it may be added, on the authority of Proust, that the phosphate of soda is also one of the constituents of serum. The same chemist has, moreover, ascertained that the sulphur exists in union with ammoniac, in the state of a hydrosulphuret.

We next enter on the consideration of the crassamentum; which is stated to consist of two distinct parts, which may be separated by repeated washing in cold water; by this process, a white fibrous substance is left behind, and the colouring matter is carried off. The solution of the colouring matter is said to exhibit all the properties of the serum, except that it contains a large quantity of iron; and it is therefore called by Mr. J. the red serum. We have some doubts of the accuracy of this statement. We conceive that the crassamentum, during its coagulation, retains among its fibres a considerable portion of the serum; and which, being soluble in water, is carried off by the washing along with colouring matter; and thus a compound solution of serum and of the colouring matter is produced.—In enumerating the properties of the fibrine, we are informed that 'caustic fixed alkalis only dissolve it by the acid of ebullition, and caustic ammonia has no effect upon it.'

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We do not profess entirely to understand this paragraph : but the fact appears to be that fibrine is easily dissolved by both potash and soda, and even by ammoniac, at a temperature of 170°.

The author sums up his observations on the blood by remarking that it is 'capable of being separated into three parts, the white serum, the red serum, and the fibrine.' To these constituents, should certainly have been added the gelatine ; which is in every respect a distinct substance, and appears to be as much an essential part of the blood, as either the fibrine or the serum.—We have already stated our objections against the term red serum.—If these three 'proximate parts,' continues Mr. Johnson, 'be reduced to the utmost analysis of which chemistry is capable, the remote component parts consist of oxygen, azot, hydrogen, carbon, sulphur, phosphoric acid, soda, lime, and iron ; to which may be added the peculiar aroma of the blood.' In this enumeration of its elements, the author has omitted the mutiatic acid, which is by every one considered as present in the blood, combined with soda.

It may perhaps be thought that these criticisms are unnecessarily minute, and that the inaccuracies which have been pointed out are not of any considerable moment : but, in a work like the present, which professes to give a complete account of the subject, and which descends to the most circumstantial details, we are offended by errors that might have passed unnoticed in a production of less magnitude and importance.

Mr. J. 'having given a general view of the nature of the blood, of its spontaneous separation into its proximate component parts, and the effects that the chemical agents have upon them,' he next endeavours, by a method contrary to that which has been generally adopted, 'to trace the outlines of its history, and the chief experiments of the principal authors who have enriched the subject by their discoveries.' This plan appears to us neither so natural nor so advantageous as the one usually employed. It is on every account more desirable that the facts should be announced in the order in which they were discovered, and that the gradual improvements should be traced from the first crude notions that were formed on the subject, until we arrive at its most perfect state.

The experiments of the older chemists on the blood, and the ideas which they entertained of its nature and properties, are so far from the truth, and indeed so totally devoid of foundation, that we can receive little interest from their detail. The most curious part of their investigations respected the figure and consistence of the red particles.—A long and apparently faithful account

is here given of the microscopical observations of Leuwenhoek, Torre, and Hewson, and of the judicious remarks that have been made on them by Cavallo. This last author has shewn that, in some instances, the older experimenters were misled by optical deceptions, and he has clearly detected the source of some of their errors: but, at other times, there is too much reason to suspect that their observations were materially biassed by their previous hypotheses.—The discovery of the iron in the blood next comes under our review. Its existence was first distinctly ascertained by Menghim; and little real addition seems to have been made to his knowledge, until the recent experiments of MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin.

The improvement that took place in chemical analysis, after the introduction of the pneumatic system, was extended in a very ample degree to the investigation of the nature and properties of the blood. In this career, Fourcroy took the lead; and he enriched this branch of animal chemistry with a variety of curious and important discoveries. To him succeeded, in the same track, MM. Parmentier and Deyeux; who also examined the blood with peculiar accuracy, and paid particular attention to the changes which it experiences in the different morbid conditions of the body. Mr. Johnson furnishes us with a very long and minute account of their paper, occupying nearly 40 pages; and though he does not adopt the exact expressions of the original, he mostly follows it, sentence by sentence, so that his analysis must be considered as little more than a translation. Much in the same manner is introduced a report of Dr. Wells's experiments on the colour of the blood; nearly the whole substance of whose paper is quoted, and not unfrequently almost in the very words of the author.—This method of compiling a scientific history is more convenient for the writer than the reader. We may indeed hope to gain an extensive acquaintance with facts, nearly in the same manner as if we perused the original authors themselves: but we expect something more than this; we expect that the person, who undertakes to produce a scientific history, should condense the information into as small a compass as may be possible. Without detailing experiments at full length, he should state the consequences that may be fairly deduced from them; he should ascertain the respective degrees of weight that may be attached to varying, and often contrary authorities; and he should point out, with precision, those parts of the subject which require still farther examination. The author who neglects these points may be a diligent collector of facts, but he cannot aspire to the title of a philosophical historian of science.

Mr.

Mr. Johnson closes his account of the blood with a long list of the sources whence he derived his materials. This is certainly a valuable document : but it would have been more satisfactory, if, instead of thus placing them together at the end of the section, he had referred to them individually at the foot of the page : by which means we might have known on what authority each separate fact depends, and the reader might have been enabled to judge of the credit that ought to be attached to it. The list of authors, moreover, though copious, is not complete. With respect to the older writers, perhaps Mr. J. might consider it sufficient to give a general reference to Haller : though it would have given his own work greater completeness, if at least some of the more celebrated of them had been distinctly specified : but there are deficiencies among the modern authors ; to pass over the smaller articles, dispersed through the periodical publications, we have no reference to the works of Hunter, Fontana, Blumenbach, and Hey.

The remainder of the first volume, and the whole of the second, are occupied with the consideration of the different substances which enter into the composition of the animal body, according to the arrangement adopted by the author, to which we have already referred. Other subjects, however, are occasionally introduced ; as, after having treated of the gastric juice, he gives a pretty full account of the function of digestion ; and under the head of skin, the author enters minutely into the process of tanning, and describes the improvements in this art by the French chemists. This must be regarded as a valuable digression, and indeed as one of the best written parts of the whole work.

Vol. II. is terminated by a general view of the chemical composition of the animal body. Mr. Johnson remarks that, ' besides water, which is more or less common to all bodies, there are four principal substances that predominate in their composition, and it is from these more particularly that the different organs have their origin. These four substances are, albumen, gelatine, fibrine, and osseous matter, and the following are their characters and properties according to chemical analysis.' We think that this catalogue is very defective. Independently of the saline substances, and of the products of the different secreting organs, which may perhaps be considered in the light of accidental or extraneous bodies, certainly mucus, nervous matter, and fat, are in every respect essential parts of the animal fabric, and as constantly present as any other of its constituents.—The author then proceeds to recapitulate the properties of albumen :

• Animal Albumen is generally found in the form of a transparent and more or less viscous, and of an aqueous colour, tending to a yellow.

• Its savour is slightly saline, and if tasted with attention, somewhat sharp.

• It changes the syrup of violets green.

• It is soluble in cold water.

• Alkalis dissolve it.

• Acids coagulate it.

• Lime water produces a precipitation in the albumen, which is the phosphate of lime. It is coagulated by the metallic oxydes, and by alcohol.

• It decomposes, and causes a precipitation in solutions of neutral, calcareous, and metallic salts.

• It undergoes the putrid, but not the acetous fermentation.

• The most distinguishing character of this fluid is, that when exposed to a degree of heat from  $45^{\circ}$  to  $48^{\circ}$ , ( $80^{\circ}$  being the boiling point,) its liquidity and transparency disappear, it becomes opaque, concrete, and solid.

We suspect, from these propositions, that the author has confounded the pure albumen with this substance as it exists in the serum of the blood, or the white of the egg. Its saline taste, and its effect on syrup of violets and lime water, as here described, must certainly depend on the presence of alkaline and phosphoric salts.—We are at a loss to know what can be meant by an aqueous colour.—In enumerating the changes which it undergoes by coagulation, it is said that ‘it (coagulated albumen) is insoluble in caustic alkalis:’ but this assertion is completely erroneous.—No mention is made of the effects of tan on the albumen.—In speaking of the cause of its coagulation, too much importance is attached to the opinion of Fourcroy, that it depends on the absorption of oxygen; for not only were his own experiments inadequate to prove this point, but the hypothesis has been directly controverted by the subsequent experiments of Carradori, who found that the operation was in no degree retarded, when performed in such a manner as absolutely to exclude all access of oxygen. No reference is made in this place to the experiments of Carradori, though, in a former part of the work, his objections to Fourcroy's hypothesis are fairly stated.

The contents of Vol. III. are divided into two parts, under the titles of *Life* and *Death*. The first section contains remarks on ‘the vital principle, irritability, respiration, and animalization.’ Respiration being the most important of these subjects, and the one to which the author seems to have devoted the greatest share of attention, we shall examine, at some length, the manner in which it is treated.

After some observations on the organs of respiration in different classes of animals, we are presented with a brief sketch of the opinions that were successively entertained by the older writers, respecting the nature and use of this function. Nothing worthy of attention occurs in the history of this science, until the publication of Mayow's tracts; and Mr. Johnson gives a good account of his leading discoveries and hypotheses. Though we think that he represents them in rather too favourable a light, we are disposed to acquiesce in his conclusion :

‘ No philosopher, at the end of the last century, had given any theory of combustion and respiration, or any account of the analogy between these two natural phenomena; of the reciprocal influence between them and the air; and of the effects produced by this fluid compared with those of nitre in combustible bodies, with so much detail and sagacious ingenuity as this physician. His works form an epoch in the annals of respiration. In giving Mayow all the merit due to him, it appears, however, that although he had determined with great precision the use of the nitro-aërial spirit of the atmosphere to be to warm the blood and give it its brilliant red colour, he was ignorant whence these phenomena arose, and how the air contributed to it: and although these nitro-aërial and igneo-aërial particles may be looked upon as the vital air or oxygen gas of the moderns, he knew nothing of its properties, nor of the change it underwent by the action of flame and respiration. These explanations were reserved for Priestley and Lavoisier.’

Referring to the writings of Hales, Haller, and Cigna, Mr. J. details the experiments and discoveries of Dr. Priestley on respiration, and then proceeds to those of M. Lavoisier.

We have next, rather awkwardly introduced, an account of the experiments performed by Jurin, Goodwyn, Menzies, and others, to ascertain the capacity of the lungs, and the change of bulk which they experience in the process of respiration. Their operations are reported at considerable length, and will be found to differ very materially from each other; yet the author makes no attempts to reconcile them, and offers no remarks on their respective merits, nor on the sources of inaccuracy into which some of these physiologists must necessarily have fallen. We were much surprized not to meet, in this place, with an account of Mr. Davy's experiments on the subject; which are highly deserving of attention, not merely on account of the celebrity of the author, but because, notwithstanding the ingenious manner in which they were contrived, and the apparent accuracy with which they were performed, their results differ very materially from those that were obtained by preceding physiologists. Though these are perhaps the only experiments that are intitled to any great degree of consideration,

sideration, yet there are others,—as those of Jurine of Geneva, De la Metherie, Kite, and Abernethy,—which ought at least to have been mentioned in so extensive a work as the present.

The change of colour, which the blood experiences in respiration, next comes under notice. The real cause of this change, though obscurely intimated by several of the older writers, was first clearly developed by Dr. Priestley; and allowing for the peculiarity of his phlogistic theory, his explanation of the phenomena was nearly that which was afterward adopted by M. Lavoisier; they supposed that, when the blood had its colour heightened by passing through the lungs, the effect was produced by the oxygenous part of the atmosphere removing from it a portion of its inflammable matter. A subsequent theory, and one which is on the whole more consonant to fact, attributes the change of colour to an absorption of oxygen by the blood; an hypothesis which owes its chief support to the experiments of La Grange and Hassenfratz. Neither the objections that have been urged against the former theory, nor the arguments that have been brought in support of the latter, are here so clearly stated as we could have wished; and the reader is left, as usual, without any guide to direct his judgment in the choice of the one or the other of them.

The curious and important question respecting the origin of animal heat now comes to be considered. After a brief sketch of the crude notions that were formed on this subject by the older physiologists, Mr. Johnson elucidates at some length the ingenious opinions of Dr. Crawford. The account of this celebrated hypothesis is detailed with a considerable degree of perspicuity, but still with too much of that prolixity which we have already been obliged to condemn.

Mr. Johnson's method of stating at full length, and almost in their own words, the experiments and deductions of the different writers whom he consults, not unfrequently leads him into erroneous statements. For instance, he introduces a string of propositions translated, though without acknowledgement, from Lavoisier, in which it is asserted that the atmosphere consists of 27 parts of oxygen, and 73 of azote. This was formerly thought to be the correct analysis: but subsequent experiments, made with more accurate instruments, have established the proportion of oxygen to be about 21 parts only. An analogous remark may be applied to the carbonic acid gas. Lavoisier had calculated that carbonic acid was composed of 72 parts of oxygen and 28 of carbon, and this estimate is implicitly assumed by Mr. Johnson. It has, however, been decisively proved that charcoal is not, as Lavoisier conceived, a simple substance, but is itself in the state of an oxyd, containing .36 of oxygen; so that 18 parts only of pure carbon can

enter into the composition of carbonic acid.—Another, but perhaps still more reprehensible instance of the same kind of negligence, occurs in this and other parts of the volumes before us; where the author, in his extracts from the French writers, has not even taken the trouble of converting the thermometrical degrees of their scale to the corresponding degrees of the scale generally adopted in this country. Speaking of the experiments made by Lavoisier, to determine the quantity of heat generated in a given time by the respiration of a guinea-pig, he informs us that they were performed at the temperature of 14 or 15 degrees.

An ample abstract is inserted, or rather a translation, of the memoir of Lavoisier on transpiration; the last which this philosopher lived to complete. Though we cannot but admire the ingenuity manifested in the contrivance, and the perseverance displayed in the execution, of the experiments detailed in this paper, we confess that there have always appeared to us several strong objections against the conclusions deduced from them by their celebrated author. We do not perceive how his apparatus could keep the effects, of what he calls pulmonary transpiration, distinct from those which properly belong to respiration; yet, if these be confounded, the grand object of the experiments is destroyed. Indeed, it may be inferred from some expressions in the paper itself, that Lavoisier was aware of this deficiency; and that he proposed to remedy it in a future set of experiments, which his untimely fate prevented him from executing. Before his conclusions can be fairly established, it would be also necessary that the quantity of water actually emitted by the lungs should be collected and measured: but it does not appear how this was effected. It may be farther remarked that Lavoisier always proceeds on an estimate of the composition of carbonic acid, which has been since proved to be erroneous.—We deem it, however, unnecessary to enter more at large into the consideration of this paper. Mr. Johnson appears to have wholly acquiesced in the reasoning employed in it; and he copies both the experiments and the inferences drawn from them, without any remarks on their merits, or on the confidence which ought to be placed in them.

Mr. J. next furnishes an account of experiments on the respiration of fish and insects; and the subject concludes with a copious abstract of Mr. Davy's experiments on the respiration of nitrous oxyd, occupying between 40 and 50 pages, and given very nearly in the words of the original, without any observations on it. At the end of the section, as in other cases, we find a long and certainly valuable list of the sources whence the author has derived his materials. Again, how-

ever;

ever, we have to remark that it is very defective. The older writers are entirely omitted; and though, with respect to most of them, we might pardon the oversight, certainly such names as those of Lower, Keill, and Boerhaave, should have been noticed in a complete history of animal chemistry. Among the more recent philosophers, the experiments of Jurine, Higgins, and Abernethy, are not noticed; nor do we find any reference to Seguin's valuable essays in the *Annales de Chimie*, to Mr. Coleman's Dissertation on Respiration, to Dr. Beddoes's work on Factitious Airs, to Dr. Thomson's account of respiration in the supplement to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, and in his System of Chemistry; and, to pass by all minor errors, we look in vain for four of Lavoisier's most valuable dissertations on this subject, viz. two in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for 1777; one in the Memoirs of the Medical Society for 1732; and one in the Memoirs of the Academy for 1789. We would strongly recommend it to Mr. Johnson to peruse these papers, previously to any future attempts to write on respiration.—Before we close these criticisms on the list of references, we must observe that, besides the deficiencies which occur, the works that are enumerated are not always correctly designated. Hassenfratz's paper, on the combination of oxygen with the blood, is stated as if it were to be found in the Memoirs of the Academy for 1791: but the fact is that no such volume exists; the paper was indeed read to the Academy in the year 1791, but was printed in the 9th volume of the *Annales de Chimie*.

In addition to these remarks, it will scarcely be necessary to state our opinion more fully on the merits of Mr. Johnson's work. It is a laborious collection of facts, which, though not without some errors and deficiencies, are for the most part accurately stated: but they are thrown together without either arrangement or selection, and we find not the least portion of the philosophy of chemistry. With respect to the style, it may be intitled to the praise of being generally intelligible, and free from affectation: but it is crude and inelegant, and not unfrequently defaced by inaccuracies which betray either great ignorance, or culpable negligence.

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ART. III. *A Northern Summer; or Travels round the Baltic through Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Prussia, and Part of Germany, in the Year 1804.* By John Carr, Esq., Author of the *Stranger in France*\*, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 480. and 11 Plates. 2l. 2s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1805.

IT is of the nature of man to assimilate his ideas in some degree with those of every writer whom he peruses. Hence we

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\* See Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 393.

have compared our office, at different times, to various occupations, and we may have been sometimes even tempted to use vile similitudes. After having read the volume before us, we could not help likening Reviewers to Excisemen; who, placed at the barrier of Taste, gauge and examine the quality of any cask imported for the use of the Literary Public. In the discharge of this duty, we sometimes taste the richest and sometimes the basest compounds. Perhaps we may estimate Mr. Carr's production as a kind of Southampton Port; light, and pretty well-flavoured, but possessed of no great body. Above all, we recommend a quick draught of it, as it is not well calculated for keeping.

Mr. Carr's plan is to take his reader with him, and to make him partake both the pains and the pleasures of his journey. The prospect of such a jaunt made our old bones ache by anticipation; and we were not slightly alarmed by the pace at which the author set off:

'The angry decrees of renovated war had closed the gates of the south; the north alone lay expanded before me; if she is less enchanting, thought I, perhaps she is the less known, and wherever man is, (women of course included.) there must be variety: she has hitherto been contemplated, clad in fur, and gliding with the swiftness of a light cloud before the wind upon her roads of shining snow. I will take a peep at her in her summer garb, and will endeavour to form a nosegay of polar flowers.'

Now this, instead of being *prologue to an egg and butter*, might have served for an introduction to a new *Species Plantarum*, or a voyage to the North Pole.

Though the tone of the work drops almost immediately to an account of the charges of Packet-boats, we are not inclined to quarrel with such useful information; nor with the 'Dull Matters necessary to be known,' which soon form a part of the running title, and might have been longer continued if the author had chosen.—Was it necessary to travel to Denmark, in order to produce such a paragraph as this? 'On our return, we found a good dinner, in a long room, painted of a leaden blue colour, having the floor well sanded, three little windows decorated with festoons of muslin, an old-fashioned chandelier threatening peril to those who passed under it, and two ancient portraits of a king and queen of Denmark, who looked very smirkingly upon each other.'—This description is almost equally important with the memorandum of Foote's Traveller, that "feathers will swim in the salt sea."

At Roskild, the author is more successful in describing the monuments of some of the Danish Royal Family; and his account of Copenhagen is really interesting. He gives also a re-

port (not revealing any new and important facts) of that celebrated action, which, next to the battle of Aboukir, tended to support the drooping interests of our country, during the late war.

We next follow Mr. Carr into Sweden, where we are amused with the following mistake into which he was betrayed at Nordkoping :

‘ We made a curious mistake here. On the evening of our arrival after tea, as we strolled in the streets, we were surprised to find them so silent and apparently deserted, for we only saw very few persons who were slowly moving homewards : at length eleven distinct strokes of the church clock satisfied us that sleep had hushed the population of the town. At this time the light was equal to that of a fine day in London, which, united to our ignorance of the time, and to our having just drank tea when we ought to have supped, produced our error.’

The account of Stockholm contains nothing new, excepting the history of Sergell the statuary. It is lengthened out with anecdotes of the amiable and unfortunate Gustavus III. and his great ancestor, Gustavus Adolphus, most of which were already well known. Of such entertainment Mr. Carr has been rather prodigal ; and his love of story-telling is the less fortunate, as he does not tell either his serious or his jocular stories with remarkable dexterity. So little is his fancy under government, at times, that he has even indulged a speculation that we may send our *foul linen* \* to be washed in Sweden, as if we had no cleanliness nor comfort at home !

On the occasion of mentioning some Swedish gun-boats, Mr. Carr treats the threatened invasion in those vessels with great contempt :

‘ It is a matter worthy of observation, particularly at this period, that the gun boats used in the naval conflicts between Russia and Sweden with so much effect, originally suggested to France the idea of using them against this country. In the seven years war they were recommended to the Duc de Choiseul, the minister of Louis XV. by Captain Kerguelin, of the Swedish navy, and in the late revolution by Captain Muskein, who was also a lieutenant in the same service : this small craft is capable of acting in the Baltic, where no tides ever interfere with manœuvres ; but it has excited astonishment, not only in Sweden but in every other part of the Continent which I visited (and I mention it with more shame than reluctance, because with the millions of England, I believed at the time in the romantic practicability of the long, very long threatened, invasion), that any reflecting Englishmen could believe in the possibility of a flotilla of gun-boats crossing such an expanse of water as divides the Isle of

Wight from Boulogne, subject to the tides, currents, and winds, which are with more or less certainty felt there, omitting the proud and confident reflections which our gallant cruisers and channel fleet naturally suggest. We well know, that in the year 1791 Muskein, without having much to dread from the natural difficulties before enumerated, on account of the shortness of the distance, attacked that dot in the channel, the island of St Marcou, with fifty of his redoubted gun-boats; that the battery of the little wave-girt fortress blew her rash and presuming enemies to atoms; and that their commander with difficulty escaped only to be disgraced by the Directory. In mere patriotic ardour and enthusiasm, independent of tides, currents, winds, cruisers, and fleets, the French, if they reflect at all, will regard St. Marcou as a miniature of a greater island.'

As we proceed in this volume, we are sorry to say that the language does not rise in estimation; thus we read that the author 'mounted his volunteer jacket,' (p. 216.) which might be supposed to imply that he did the duty of a taylor, but which simply means that he put it on; and in the same page, we meet with the barbarism 'to lay down,' not *the law*, nor *his knife and fork*, but to *lie down*.—Mr. C., however, improves when he arrives at Petersburg:

'The sky was cloudless, the Neva of a brilliant blue, clear, and nearly as broad as the Thames at Westminster bridge; it flowed majestically along, bearing on its bosom the most picturesque vessels and splendid pleasure-barges; as the eye rapidly travelled several miles up and down this glorious river, adorned with stupendous embankments of granite, it beheld its sides lined with palaces, stately buildings, and gardens, whilst at a distance arose green cupolas, and the lofty spires of the Greek churches covered with ducat gold, and glittering in the sun. Immediately before us extended the magnificent railing of the summer gardens, with its columns and vases of granite, a matchless work of imperial taste and splendour.'

A description of the cottage, in which Peter I. resided, during the building of the city, gives occasion to introduce a curious anecdote of that monarch:

'The house, or rather cottage, in which Peter the Great resided during the foundation of Petersburg, a city which is the growth of little more than a century, stands on the left of the Emperor's bridge in the road to the fortress. This little building, so sacred to the Russians, was covered over with a brick-building of arcades by the late Empress, to protect and support it against the ravages of time. The rooms are three, all upon the ground floor, and very low: it was in this very cottage that a whimsical scene occurred whilst the fortress was building. A Dutch skipper, hearing that Petersburg was building, and that the Emperor had a great passion for ships and commerce, resolved to try his good fortune there, and accordingly arrived with the first merchant vessel that ever sailed upon the Neva, and was the bearer of a letter of introduction to the captain of the port from a friend of his in Holland, requesting him to use his interest

interest to procure a freight for him. Peter the Great was working like a common labourer in the Admiralty as the galliot passed, and saluted with two or three small guns. The Emperor was uncommonly delighted, and having been informed of the Dutchman's business, he resolved to have some frolic with him, and accordingly commanded the port captain to see the skipper, as soon as he landed, and direct him to the Emperor, as a merchant just settled there, whom he intended to personate; the better to carry on the joke, Peter repaired to this cottage with his Empress, who, to humour the plan, dressed herself in a plain bourgeois habit, such as suited the wife of a merchant. The Dutchman was introduced to the Emperor, who received him with great kindness, and they sat and ate bread and cheese, and smoked together for some time, during which the Dutchman's eye examined the room, and began to think that no one who lived in so mean a place, could be of any service to him: presently the Empress entered, when the skipper addressed her, by observing that he had brought her a cheese, a much better one than she had ever tasted, for which, affecting an awkward manner, she thanked him. Being much pleased with her appearance, he took from his coat a piece of linen, and begged her acceptance of it for shifts. "Oh!" exclaimed the Emperor, taking the pipe from his mouth, "Kate, you will now be as fine and as proud as an empress! there, you are a lucky woman, you never had such shifts as you will now have, in your life before." This was followed by the stranger begging to have a kiss, which she coyly indulged him in. At this moment Prince Menzikof, the favourite and minister of Peter the Great, who represented him upon matters of state, entered with all his orders, and stood before the Emperor uncovered. The skipper began to stare with amazement, whilst Peter, by winking and making private signs, induced the Prince immediately to retire. The astonished Dutchman said, "Why, you appear to have great acquaintance here?" "Yes," replied Peter, "and so may you, if you stay here but ten days; there are plenty of such needy noblemen as the one you saw, they are always in debt, and very glad to borrow money of any one, and they have even found out me; but, sir, beware of these fellows, resist their importunity, however flattering, and do not be dazzled by their stars and garters, and such trumpery." This explanatory advice put the stranger a little more at his ease, who drank and smoked on very cheerfully, and made his bargain with the *Imperial Merchant* for a cargo; just as he had settled this point to his wish, the officer of the guard, which had been changed, entered to receive his orders, and stood with profound respect uncovered, and before Peter could stop him, addressed him by the title of Imperial Majesty. The Dutchman sprang from his chair, fell on his knees before the Emperor and Empress, and implored forgiveness for the liberties he had been taking. Peter enjoyed the scene, and laughing heartily, raised up the terrified suppliant, made him kiss the Empress's hand, presented him with fifteen hundred rubles, gave him a freight, and ordered that his vessel, as long as her timbers remained together, should be permitted to enter

enter all the Russian ports free of duty. This privilege made the rapid fortune of the owner."

The author seems to have formed a very favourable opinion of the reigning Emperor. From several anecdotes, which shew much affability and goodness of heart, we select the ensuing :

' One day whilst I was at Petersburg, as the Emperor was returning from Cronstadt, when the weather was most oppressively hot, he halted at a little village about twenty versts from the residence, in consequence of the relay of horses not being immediately ready. An English merchant who had a country house adjoining, with that warmth of heart which forgets and surpasses all etiquette, ran out, and presented to the Emperor, who appeared to be in great heat and covered with dust, a glass of excellent Burton ale, for which his Majesty, with his usual affability, thanked his attentive host, and drank. Both the Emperor and the merchant forgot that the beverage was prohibited, or secretly relished it the more on that account. A German who was present, and was struck with the frank and cordial avidity with which the Emperor emptied the glass, observed, "that had a Frenchman offered it, his Majesty would have made one of his horses taste it first."

' Upon another occasion the Emperor exhibited the native goodness of his heart : some British bottled porter, which is also prohibited, was shipped for an Englishman whose lady was very much indisposed, and to whom it was recommended by her physicians. Scarcely had it reached Petersburg from Cronstadt, before it was seized by the custom-house officer : upon the Emperor hearing of it, he sent to the customs, declaring it to be his own (for such, in truth, the law of confiscation had made it), and immediately forwarded it, with some very kind expressions, to the fair invalid.'

In chap. xiv. the work assumes a higher tone, and we are presented with a very interesting account of the late unhappy Emperor, Paul. The unkindness of his mother, and the state of depression in which she studiously held him, are said to have irremediably injured his mind. The origin of the conspiracy against him is imputed to the dissatisfaction of the Empress's last favourite; who had been disgraced, notwithstanding the zeal which he had displayed in delivering up the Empress's will, in which Paul was set aside, and the Grand Duke Alexander destined to the throne. The fatal deed is thus described :

' It was the custom of the Emperor to sleep in an outer apartment next to the Empress's, upon a sofa, in his regimentals and boots, whilst the Grand Duke and Duchess, and the rest of the Imperial family, were lodged at various distances, in apartments below the story which he occupied. On the tenth day of March, O. S. 1801, the day preceding the fatal night, whether Paul's apprehension, or anonymous information, suggested the idea, is not known, but conceiving

ceiving that a storm was ready to burst upon him, he sent to Count P——, the governor of the city, one of the noblemen who had resolved on his destruction: "I am informed, P——", said the Emperor, "that there is a conspiracy on foot against me; do you think it necessary to take any precaution?" The Count, without betraying the least emotion, replied, "Sire, do not suffer such apprehensions to haunt your mind; if there were any combinations forming against your Majesty's person, I am sure I should be acquainted with it." "Then I am satisfied," said the Emperor, and the governor withdrew. Before Paul retired to rest, he unexpectedly expressed the most tender solicitude for the Empress and his children, kissed them with all the warmth of farewell fondness, and remained with them longer than usual; and after he had visited the centinels at their different posts, he retired to his chamber, where he had not long remained, before, under some colourable pretext, that satisfied the men, the guard was changed by the officers who had the command for the night, and were engaged in the confederacy. An hussar, whom the Emperor had particularly honoured by his notice and attention, always at night slept at his bed room door, in the anti-room. It was impossible to remove this faithful soldier by any fair means. At this momentous period, silence reigned throughout the palace, except where it was disturbed by the pacing of the centinels, or at a distance by the murmurs of the Neva, and only a few lights were to be seen distantly and irregularly gleaming through the windows of this dark colossal abode. In the dead of the night, Z——and his friends, amounting to eight or nine persons, passed the draw-bridge, easily ascended the stair-case which led to Paul's chamber, and met with no resistance till they reached the anti-room, when the faithful hussar, awakened by the noise, challenged them, and presented his fusée: much as they must have all admired the brave fidelity of the guard, neither time nor circumstances would admit of an act of generosity, which might have endangered the whole plan. Z——drew his sabre and cut the poor fellow down. Paul, awakened by the noise, sprung from his sofa: at this moment the whole party rushed into his room; the unhappy Sovereign, anticipating their design, at first endeavoured to entrench himself in the chairs and tables, then recovering, he assumed a high tone, told them they were his prisoners, and called upon them to surrender. Finding that they fixed their eyes steadily and fiercely upon him, and continued advancing towards him, he implored them to spare his life, declared his consent instantly to relinquish the sceptre, and to accept of any terms which they would dictate. In his raving, he offered to make them princes, and to give them estates, and titles, and orders, without end. They now began to press upon him, when he made a convulsive effort to reach the window: in the attempt he failed, and indeed so high was it from the ground, that had he succeeded, the expedient would only have put a more instantaneous period to his misery. In the effort he very severely cut his hand with the glass; and as they drew him back he grasped a chair, with which he felled one of the assailants, and a desperate resistance took place. So great was the noise, that notwithstanding the masonry walls, and thick double folding-doors, which divided the apartments, the

the Empress was disturbed, and began to cry for help, when a voice whispered in her ear, and imperatively told her to remain quiet, otherwise, if she uttered another word, she should be put to instant death. Whilst the Emperor was thus making a last struggle, the Prince Y——struck him on one of his temples with his fist, and laid him upon the floor; Paul, recovering from the blow, again implored his life; at this moment the heart of P——Z——relented, and upon being observed to tremble and hesitate, a young Hanoverian resolutely exclaimed, "We have passed the Rubicon: if we spare his life, before the setting of to-morrow's sun, we shall be his victims!" upon which he took off his sash, turned it twice round the naked neck of the Emperor, and giving one end to Z——, and holding the other himself, they pulled for a considerable time with all their force, until their miserable sovereign was no more; they then retired from the palace without the least molestation, and returned to their respective homes. What occurred after their departure can be better conceived than depicted: medical aid was resorted to, but in vain, and upon the breathless body of the Emperor fell the tears of his widowed Empress and children, and domestics; nor was genuine grief ever more forcibly or feelingly displayed than by him on whose brow this melancholy event had planted the crown. So passed away this night of horror, and thus perished a Prince, to whom nature was *severely* bountiful. The acuteness and pungency of his feeling was incompatible with happiness: unnatural prejudice pressed upon the fibre, too finely spun, and snapped it.

In the Taurida Palace, built by Potemkin, the dreams of Romance and Faëry seem to be realized:

'The first room we entered from the garden, was the celebrated hall in which Prince Potemkin gave the most gorgeous and costly entertainment ever recorded since the days of Roman voluptuousness: I am not able to communicate to my readers the ideas which this enormous room excited. If a pagan were to be transported into it in his sleep, when he awoke he could not fail of thinking that he had undergone an apotheosis, and had been conducted to the banqueting-room of Jupiter. It was built after the unassisted design of Potemkin, and unites, to a sublime conception, all the graces of finished taste. This prodigious room is supported by double rows of colossal doric pillars, opening on one side into a vast pavilion, composing the winter-garden, which I saw prepared for the Emperor, who resides here for a short time every year, just before I left Petersburg. This garden is very extensive: the trees, chiefly orange, of an enormous size, are sunk in the earth in their tubs, and are entirely covered with fine mould: the walks are gravelled, wind and undulate in a very delightful manner, are neatly turfed, and lined with roses and other flowers: the whole of the pavilion is lighted by lofty windows: from the ceiling depend several magnificent lustres of the richest cut glass.

'Here, whilst the polar winter is raging without, covering the world in white, and hardening the earth to marble; when water tossed in the air drops down in ice; may be seen the foliage, and inhaled the fragrance, of an Arabian grove, in the soft and benign climate of an Italian

Italian spring. The novelty and voluptuous luxuriance of this green refreshing spectacle, seen through a colonnade of massy white pillars, and reduplicated by vast mirrors, is matchless. Between the columns, now no longer incumbered with boxes for spectators as they formerly were, are a great number of beautiful statues and colossal casts: the two celebrated vases of Carrara marble, the largest in the world, occupy the centre of the room leading to the winter-garden. The Dying Gladiator, Cupid and Psyche, a recumbent Hermaphrodite, and many other exquisite productions of the chisel, afford ample gratification to the man of taste. Amongst the busts, is that of the Right Honourable Charles James Fox, by Nollekens; an admirable likeness of that distinguished orator. Paul, during his temporary aversion to the English, ordered this bust into the *cellar*: whether he intended that his spleen should carry the marks of some humor, I know not. His august successor removed it from the region of the Tuscan juice, and the depths of darkness, and ordered it to occupy its present station, where by the side of Grecian and Roman virtue, the sun of heaven shines full upon it. Opposite to the winter-garden is a beautiful saloon, divided from the hall only by the colonnade, which is filled with rare antiques, principally busts. Amongst them a head of Achilles, and a small Silenus, are justly regarded as the most precious. During the darkened hours of Paul, he converted this palace into a garrison; and the hall, pavilion, and saloon, into a riding-school for his troops!

The celebrated *fête* given to the Empress in this room is still more astonishing:

‘ Nothing could exceed the public sensation which this *fête* excited. At length the evening arrived when the Prince was to appear in all his pomp and glory, before his fond and adored sovereign. The walls of these splendid apartments were most richly and beautifully illuminated, and decorated with various exquisite transparencies; and the stairs, hall, avenues, and sides of the rooms were lined with officers of state, attached to the household of the Prince, and servants, in the most costly dresses, and magnificent liveries. The orchestra exceeded six hundred vocal and instrumental musicians, and announced the entrance of the Empress and her court, richly attired, by a grand overture and chorus, which reverberated through the collonnades and saloons. Potemkin conducted his imperial visitor to an elevated chair glittering with gold and diamonds: midway between the columns were boxes gilt with pale gold, and lined with green silk, filled with spectators in gala dresses. The festivity commenced with a dance of youths of both sexes, habited in white, and covered with pearls and jewels, at the head of whom were the present Emperor and the grand duke Constantine his brother. After the dance, and the most costly refreshments, the party repaired to the theatre, at the other end of the palace, where an occasional piece, composed in honour of the Empress, was performed, in which all the powers of singing, acting, dancing, dress, scenery, and decorations, were displayed. Upon the conclusion of the drama, the audience rose, and as if impelled by magic, the benches, touched by springs, moved and formed into

into tables and little seats which were almost instantaneously covered with the richest viands, served up in gold and silver. The curtain again rose, and discovered a hall of mirrors, from which descended globular lustres of crystal, and a table appeared covered with the rarity of almost every region, splendidly served in gold; and at the head, upon a throne gilded and glittering with precious stones, sat the Empress surrounded by her court, the most brilliant in Europe. Such were the arrangements in this place, that every one could see and be seen. In the colossal hall were spread tables filled with delicacies and the most costly wines, and at the head of it was a prodigious massy cistern of solid silver, containing sterlet soup, which is said alone to have cost ten thousand rubles. During this splendid repast, in every room the softest music was heard, which rather enlivened than restrained the current of conversation. Universal decorum and hilarity prevailed; every wish was anticipated, every sense was gratified.'

In his account of the mode by which Catharine checked the progress of revolutionary principles in Russia, the author seems to have acquired rather too keen a relish for despotism:

'Catharine put down a sect still more formidable, and by the following whimsically wise manner, saved her people from the baneful contagion of French principles. During that revolution, which portended ruin to all the sacred establishments of all nations, when in England Pitt trampled out the brightening embers, and saved his country from the devouring flames, a group of mischievous emissaries from France arrived at Petersburg, and began, in whispers amongst the mob, to persuade the poor droshka driver, and the ambulatory vender of honey quass, that thrones were only to be considered as stools, and that they had as much right to sit upon one of them as their empress: Catharine, concealing her real apprehensions, availed herself of the powers with which she was clothed, without shedding a drop of blood. She knew ridicule to be, in able hands, a powerful weapon, and resolved to wield it upon the present occasion. One evening the police officers were ordered to seize all these illuminated apostles of liberty, and bear them away to the lunatic asylum, where the Empress had directed that their heads should be shaved and blistered, and their bodies well scoured by aperient medicines, and kept on meagre diet; this regimen was continued for fourteen days, when their confinement terminated. The common Russians had heard of their fate, and really believing that they had been insane, neglected and deserted them upon their re-appearance in the city with shorn heads, hollow eyes, and sunk cheeks, and all the striking indications of a recently bewildered mind. If this mild and ingenious project had failed, Catharine would have let loose all the energy of power, and for this purpose she rapidly caused to be built that vast edifice, now used for the marine barracks, which she destined for a state prison.'

Mr. Carr has forgotten, apparently, that the best principles have been attacked in a similar manner, but luckily without success.

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The Institutions for the education of Girls are described with much feeling; and we were highly pleased with the subsequent story:

' In the institution of Saint Catharine, under the direction of Madame Bredkoff, an elderly lady of distinguished talents, and sweetness of disposition, the following little circumstance occurred which will prove that the Russian mind, whatever may have been said of it, is susceptible of feeling and generosity. In this institution, which is supported by the Empress-dowager, a limited number only of young ladies are admitted, free of expence, by ballot; but others are received upon paying, as it is termed, a pension. At the last admission, two little girls, the eldest not exceeding ten years of age, the daughter of a naval captain, who in this country is noble, the father of a large family, presented themselves, and drew, the one a prize, the other a blank. Although so young, they knew that fate had, in this manner, resolved upon their separation; they felt it and wept. Another young lady, to whom the next chance devolved, drew a prize, and observing the distress of the sisters, without holding any communication with their parents, or with any other person, spontaneously ran up to the luckless little girl, presented her with the ticket, and leading her up to the directress, said, "See, Madam, I have drawn a prize, but my papa can afford to pay the pension, and I am sure will pay it for me: pray let one who is less fortunate, enjoy the good that has happened to me." This charming anecdote was immediately reported to the Empress-dowager, who expressed the highest delight, and paid, out of her own purse, the pension of the little benefactress.'

The remaining part of the account of Russia consists of details of public festivals; at which, according to the French phrase, the author *assisted*.

At Dantzic, Mr. Carr experienced some disgusts, hardly important enough to have been recorded. "Travellers," as the clown says, "should be content."

We meet with a laughable anecdote, respecting the ceremony imposed on all strangers, of announcing their names and titles on entering garrison-towns:

' An English humorist, who had by virtue of his freehold a parliamentary vote in the municipal county, upon being stopped at the gate of a town in some part of Germany, throughout which empire an elector is considered as a personage only inferior to the Emperor, and upon his name being demanded, replied, "*Je suis un Electeur de Middlesex*;" upon which the Captain ordered the guard to turn out and salute him, and sent a company to follow the carriage to the inn, and attend him there, and paid him all the honours due to an electoral Prince. The delusion was easily carried on, for princes, even crowned heads in Germany, and various other parts of the continent, trouble themselves but little about equipage.'

The plates are pleasing additions to this amusing volume, and are creditable to Mr. Carr's pencil.

ART.

ART. IV. *Memoirs of the Life of Gilbert Wakefield, B.A., formerly Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge.* In two Volumes. Vol. I. written by himself, a new Edition, with his last Corrections, and Notes by the Editors. To which is subjoined an Appendix of Original Letters. Vol. II. by the Editors of the first Volume, with an Appendix consisting chiefly of Original Letters and Papers. 8vo. 11. 1s. Boards. Johnson. 1804.

WE have more than once spoken our sentiments respecting the character which is here fully exhibited to our view ; and we have observed that, if it laid claim to peculiar excellencies, it also laboured under striking defects. We are inclined, however, to believe from information drawn from other sources, as well as from the additional volume before us, that the good not only far predominated, but that the proportion of the alloy to the pure metal was every day diminishing. Mr. Wakefield himself speaks of a ‘ melioration of the heart,’ as having been effected during his confinement ; and it was noticed by several of his friends that he appeared to be much more moderate, and that he seemed to be resolved to devote his whole attention in future to literary pursuits. In our remarks on his different works, we have had frequent occasions to animadvert on his singularities, and to censure his violence ; and in reviewing the first volume of his memoirs, we remonstrated against the censorious and querulous spirit which it breathed : a spirit inconsistent with that elevation of character, and with those higher rules of conduct, for which credit is given to an avowed reformer. With principles such as he chose to profess, pre-ferment was not to be expected ; and the opinions which he zealously promulgated effectually excluded him from the countenance and patronage of “ those in authority.” Sacrificing, therefore, as he did, his prospects to his conscience, we see nothing in his fate to justify the loud and frequent complaints in which he indulged. His murmurs, and his allusions to the advancement of others whose chances, he observed, were originally not superior to his own,—if they did not indicate regret at the election which he had made,—bespoke a discontent with his lot, a dissatisfaction with the arrangements of Providence, and were inconsistent with the piety which beyond all doubt he cherished.

Those who would make conscience the absolute arbiter of their conduct, who deem sincerity to be as obligatory in all matters of public form, as it undoubtedly must be held in all transactions in which such forms do not intervene, should previously study well their mental frame, and the degree of fortitude and firmness which it possesses ; they should strictly comply with the precept of the oracle, before they commit  
 15. themselves

themselves in a career which is not exempt from dreariness ; they should consider well whether they can stand unmoved under the frowns of power, the scoffs of fashion, and the inconveniencies of poverty ; they should carefully examine whether they have been elected by heaven to read to the world the sublime lesson, that to a strict adherence to truth and to unswerving rectitude belong consolations and enjoyments more gratifying even to imperfect human nature, than the acquisition of honours and the accumulation of treasures. To all the importance, and all the dignity, of this august mission, we believe that the subject of these memoirs was highly sensible ; and in order to support it, what sacrifices had he not made ? If, then, he sometimes forgot his high vocation, let not those condemn him who never attempted to act a similar part. Mr. Wakefield, it should be remembered, died as it were in the prime of life : neither his literary nor his moral character had reached maturity ; his intentions and aims were ever most pure ; and had he lived, he would probably have furnished us an eminent pattern of moral rectitude and of literary exertion. Let those who would question this conjecture peruse the second of these volumes, and contemplate the subject of it in his private papers, in his communications with his family and friends, and in his acts of benevolence and religion towards his fellow-captives in the prison, which are here submitted to their view ; and we are persuaded that they will admit that we have not over-rated his character.

The first of these volumes, which now appears in an improved edition, was written by Mr. Wakefield himself, and due notice of it was taken by us. The second is the production of two friends of the deceased, who have subscribed their names to the dedication, John Towill Rutt, and Arnold Wainwright. If it be less lively and entertaining than its companion, it is free from the many blemishes which disfigure that highly animated narrative ; which was composed with prodigious haste, and at a moment when the mind of the writer had been made sore by disappointment. These gentlemen display a zeal for the memory of their friend which reflects the highest credit on their feelings ; and their volume presents us with well-judged selections from the works and correspondence of the deceased, apt quotations from other authors, interesting circumstances drawn from the store of their own recollections, and judicious observations. In one respect, however, we conceive that their attachment has carried them too far ; when, alluding to the obnoxious publications for which Mr. Wakefield was prosecuted, they speak in too high a tone, and assume too much the language of justification ; scarcely allowing him to have been chargeable with any

blame or error. This conduct is not less injudicious than it is unwarranted. Had they contented themselves with a mere statement of facts, the decisive preponderance of worth and excellence, which these volumes prove to have belonged to Mr. Wakefield, would have induced dispassionate readers to have acquitted his intentions; and to have regarded his political delinquencies as errors of the head, with which the heart had no concern.

From the period at which Mr. W.'s own account of himself breaks off, to that of his imprisonment, he had never changed his residence, which was in the vicinity of the metropolis. His confinement lasted two years, and he survived it only a few months.

We shall now present to our readers some passages relative to Mr. W.'s conduct while in the gaol at Dorchester, which illustrate the genuine goodness of his nature, and the pure principles by which he was actuated:

‘ It excited no common interest to observe the kindness and courtesy of his behaviour towards all the prisoners. They, in return, were eager to seize every opportunity of evincing their gratitude for an attention to which they were so little accustomed. Of the greater part of them it might be truly said, that with the exception of himself, they had

“ No eye to mark their sufferings with a tear,  
No friend to comfort, and no hope to cheer \*.”

‘ He took great pains to inquire into their *peculiar* cases, and made them the subject of frequent conversation with his friends, who in several instances, had the satisfaction of contributing to their relief. One instance has been already noticed, and more might be added, even from our own personal knowledge. The prisoners frequently requested him to draw up petitions in their behalf, for mercy, or for mitigation of punishment. These offices of Christian charity, and a thousand others, did he most cheerfully perform †.

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‘ \* Day’s “Dying Negro.”

‘ † The following account of Mr. Wakefield’s minute attentions to the wants of the prisoners we received from an eye witness in his own family. It places him in so amiable a point of view as to require no apology for it’s insertion.

“ During the high price of bread he bought large quantities of mackarel, which he distributed amongst the *prisoners*: he also occasionally gave them money for tea; sixpence to each of the men, and a shilling to the women. To such of them, who were desirous of employing themselves in reading on Sundays, and after their work, he gave *Testaments*. In the winter of the year 1799 and 1800 the weather was remarkably severe, and he supplied them with potatoes, tobacco, and other things, of which they stood in need, as their portion

‘ It was indeed a sentiment frequently urged by him, that the most exalted endowments of intellect, unaccompanied by a disposition to active benevolence, forfeited all claim to respect.

‘ The following extract from his manuscript papers forcibly inculcates the same doctrine. The recurrence of this sentiment, in various parts of his writings, proves in a great measure that it was not merely a speculative opinion. It was carried into the constant practice of his life, and became the rule by which he estimated his own character, with no less impartiality than that of others.

‘ He remarks, “*that knowledge only is of value which exalts the virtue, multiplies the comforts, soothes the sorrow, and improves the general felicity of human intercourse ; which accompanies the possessor in every condition, and through all the vicissitudes of mortality ; which exhilarates and amends society, which solaces and animates the retirement of domestic life.*”

Mr. W.’s letter to his daughter, who was then on a visit to Dr. Crompton of Eton near Liverpool, strongly points to a difference between the private individual and the author, which has been known to exist in many other instances, while it shews the degree in which this tender father possessed the kind affections. We copy some parts of it :

“Dorchester Gaol, Oct. 19, 1799.

“My very dear child,

“I shall occasionally employ myself in giving you a few directions, which may contribute to the perfection of your conduct and the improvement of your understanding ; but I do not require from you a punctual reply to all my letters, and I shall be fully requited by a few lines either to your mother, your sister, or myself. I wish you in this, and in every other respect, to consult your own inclination and convenience, under the government of conviction, and a just regard to propriety and decorum.

“It is unnecessary for me, I know, to desire your attention to my advice. You must be persuaded that I can be impelled to an occupation, most odious in general, and almost insupportable, from my attachment to other pursuits, by no motive but affection for you, and that I can propose to myself no object but the advancement of your happiness. Few people also have been more accurately observant of men and manners than myself : so that my suggestions will not only be the offspring of affection, but the deductions of experience.”

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of bread was comparatively small, and the quality very inferior. He likewise contributed greatly to the comfort of the *debtors*, by giving them his advice, in their affairs, and sending the newspapers to them daily. He also wrote letters for them to their friends, and was the means of procuring the liberation of several. To *them* likewise he gave money for coals and other necessaries. After their release many of them sent small presents of fish, and other trifling things, to shew their gratitude for his kindness.”

"You have that frankness and openness of manners and conversation, which I have always encouraged in you, and which is the result, I am persuaded, of an undisguised and uncorrupted heart. But let me entreat you, my dearest love! to express, on all occasions, your dissent from the opinion of others in the softest manner, and in the most conciliating language. Though some people regard me as violent and self-willed, I know very well that I owe the extraordinary affection of my many friends to no one property so much as a kind attention to their sentiments, and a civil manner of disputing them. Nothing so much becomes all mankind as gentleness, condescension, and an unassuming proposal of our opinions: but this complacency of deportment is most of all becoming the young and inexperienced, and especially your own sex.

"Sir Isaac Newton, the most sublime intelligence among the sons of men, was also the most modest, the most humble, and the least disputatious person, that has yet existed. I need not mention that self-love and pride urge every human being to oppose, repress, and disparage the forward and the petulant; whilst the benevolent, and polite, and conciliating, secure to themselves the universal homage of deference, esteem, and love. So certainly will our own happiness be effected by an undeviating assiduity in promoting the happiness of others. Adieu! my dear child, accept the affectionate wishes and remembrances of us all, and fail not in communicating our respectful acknowledgments to all the family.

"Believe me, my dear,

"Your most loving father,

"GILBERT WAKEFIELD."

Writing on another occasion to his daughter, he tells her;

"The assizes here ended last week; and the number of criminals exceeded that of any former occasion. Thirteen, I think, were condemned, and four are left for execution, three of whom have never been in a goal before. They are now undergoing the previous torture of cold solitary cells, heavy irons, with bread and water to continue existence, rather than sustain life."

"The case of these condemned criminals (add the editors) very much interested his feelings, already oppressed by the dangerous, and at length fatal illness of his youngest child. On application to the magistrates he obtained permission to visit them in their solitary cells, and exerted himself to the utmost in preparing their minds for the awful fate which awaited them.

"Their desponding melancholy, when he first visited them, was great beyond expression. But his intimate knowledge of human nature enabled him to enter fully into their situation, and to communicate such instruction, and open to them such views as their previous extreme ignorance would allow. Here he endeavoured to put in practice, as far as his situation would permit, those methods of influencing the mind by kindness and persuasion, which he so strenuous

ously enforced, as the only rational mode of attempting the reformation of criminals.

‘He was highly gratified by observing the good effects of his attentions, and soon had the happiness to perceive, that

— “to each cell, a mild, yet mournful guest,  
Contrition came, and still’d the beating breast.”

‘Such was the result of his affectionate treatment of these unhappy men, that they became at length perfectly composed and resigned to their fate, which all of them suffered with the most entire firmness and decent resolution.

‘Under the impression of these circumstances, Mr. Wakefield again wrote to his daughter.

“Dorchester Gaol, March., 1801.

“My dear child,

“Another melancholy event has agitated our feelings during the last week: the execution of four men for robberies. I felt an unusual interest in their situation; and as they were extremely ignorant, I was desirous that some attention should be paid them beyond the formal and unimpassioned duties of the chaplain.

“The time was short, but I obtained leave from the magistrates to visit them, and was with them five different times. I employed the opportunities to the utmost capacity of their attention and understanding; and I enjoyed the satisfaction of perceiving, as well as learning from the reports of their attendants, that their minds, in consequence of my instructions and admonitions, from a rambling and confused sense of things, soon settled into that serenity of resignation, and decency of firmness, which their situation required.

“It is universally allowed, that no men ever met death with more tranquil resolution, than these poor creatures. Nay, one who had been uncommonly dismayed at first, and had expected a reprieve, declared himself so resigned to suffer death, as to feel no desire of deliverance; and they welcomed the summons to the execution with a readiness, and even cheerfulness, that commanded the admiration of the beholders; whose lamentations and sorrows, and mine among the rest, formed a striking contrast to their steadiness, silence, and magnanimity.”—

‘To have witnessed such a scene as he has here described would, under any circumstances, have made a deep impression on Mr. Wakefield’s mind. His sensibility on this occasion was heightened by a domestic affliction, to which we have already alluded, and which took place within a few days of the event just noticed. The state of his mind under this calamity discovers itself in his letters, and was not a little aggravated by his solitary situation. “Alas!” says he to a friend, “since I wrote to you before, our little fellow has been taken from us. Last Sunday morning, about six o’clock, he departed from the world, and has occasioned a pressure of affliction to his mother, sister, and myself, which it might appear an ostentation of sorrow to describe in correspondence to it’s reality. A severe trial!

trial! increased by alternate hopes, and indeed, clear prospects, of recovery.”—

‘ From a deep conviction of the truth of these principles, he often lamented that he had not *permission* to communicate instruction to his fellow-prisoners, from time to time, suited to their various capacities at a season when entire seclusion from the world, and its temptations, might well be expected

“ To leave them leisure to be good.”

‘ Under the same impressions he observes, “ I attended the *Church-Service*, occasionally, at Dorchester Gaol, though I never attend it elsewhere; being not only willing to countenance the ignorant in the seriousness of devotion, but fond of encouraging the poor and wretched by an equality of association with them. I can truly say that I felt a pleasure and pride in making myself equal to these despised men of the earth, beyond what such an association with their superiors could have excited in my bosom.”

The following traits we believe to be infallible indications of a kind and good heart :

‘ His fondness for young persons has been noticed more than once, and it was a very observable feature in his disposition. He entered with great interest into their innocent amusements, particularly those of his own children, not unfrequently laying aside his books, and devoting an hour with them to a game of cricket; or instructing them in the arts of making and flying a kite, in both which he was quite an adept. To the levities, and even follies, of youth he was indulgent; and an enemy to all unnecessary severity and restraint; aiming rather to excite the practice of virtue from a detestation of vice, than from that more servile, and generally ineffectual, principle—a dread of punishment.

‘ Towards the aged and infirm, his behaviour was marked by the most kind attention and respect. To inferiors of every description he conducted himself with uniform condescension and affability; making it a rule, as he expresses it in one of his private papers, “ always to speak with courtesy and civility and respectfulness to the servants, and even to the meanest person in the streets.”

Dr. Parr, in a letter to Mr. Wainewright, which reflects as much honour on the feelings as on the learning of the writer, does not spare the defects of his deceased friend, but at the same time confers on him high praise, which is of the more value because it is discriminative :

‘ Many of the errors, which occur in his emendations, and many of the imperfections which have been imputed to his Latin style, may, I think, be traced to the following causes.

‘ The first, and perhaps the most powerful, which presents itself to my memory, is, that he had not received his education in one of our great public schools, where his taste would have been early and correctly

rectly formed ; where a traditionary stock of principles would have been ready for his use in the opinions and compositions of his school-fellows ; where the conjectures and arguments of commentators, unaccompanied by their rude disputes, would have been first conveyed to his mind ; and where a judicious instructor, by his own remarks, would not only have assisted the judgment of Mr. Wakefield, but would have taught him to smile at the self-importance, and to avoid the acrimony, of the most eminent critics. Dr. Warton of Winchester, and Dr. John Foster of Eton, carried into their writings the same candid and liberal spirit which pervaded their oral instructions ; and their examples, I am sure, were equally favourable in their literary and moral effects on the minds of their scholars.

‘ Mr. Wakefield was himself very sensible of the inconveniences to which he was exposed from another circumstance, which I am now going to mention ; and in his letters to me, he has more than once lamented them most ingenuously and most feelingly. In consequence of his habits of retirement, of his separation from the English church, and the English universities, of his residence in places far remote from the capital, and of his numerous and honourable employments, when he came into the neighbourhood of it, he seldom had access to the conversation of such among his countrymen, as are most distinguished for philological learning. But, from my own personal experience, I can say with justice of those who take the lead among them, that Mr. Wakefield would have derived the greatest advantage from their friendly communications ; and would have met, not only with more wisdom, but with more candour, than the generality of the world is prone to ascribe to verbal critics. If much intimacy had fortunately subsisted between these excellent men and our friend, he might have been often contradicted ; he would have been sometimes vanquished ; but he would have always been enlightened, and very seldom displeased. “ Si quidem vera Amicitia nullam fert *Επὶ χαιρέσιν*, nullam Malevolentiam, nullam Invidiam, Irrisionem nullam.” Life of Ruhnken, page 162.’—

‘ I suspect that his mind was embarrassed and confused by the multiplicity of his reading ; that it was not sufficiently stored with those principles which a man of his industry and sagacity might have easily collected from the great work of Henry Stephens on the Dialects, and from the celebrated preface of Pierson to Mæris : that he passed with too much rapidity from writers of one age and in one dialect, to writers of other ages, and in other dialects ; from prose to verse ; from epic to dramatic poetry ; from tragedy to comedy ; from epigrammatists to lyric writers : that he had read much, observed much, and remembered much ; that he was eager to produce the multifarious matter which he had accumulated ; and that he wanted time or patience for that discrimination, which would have made his conjectures fewer, indeed, but more probable ; and his principles in forming or illustrating them more exact.’—

‘ I have, therefore, sometimes indulged a wish that Mr. Wakefield, instead of pushing on to fresh editions of books, or to fresh emendations of writers, had sitten down to review his own critical works. When the first and sudden allurements of emendation had passed

away—when his mind was at leisure to consider “the objections which might arise against the change which once appeared to him happy”—when correction was the professed and immediate object in which he was to be employed, I am persuaded that he would have observed and retracted many of his own mistakes; and that he would have placed a proper degree of reliance upon those canons of criticism, which he had examined negligently, and rejected hastily. Some of them have been long established by the general consent of scholars, and others, though recent, are decisive and illustrious proofs of sagacity in the persons who proposed them. Most of his prejudices, indeed, would have been corrected, and most of his deficiencies would have been supplied, if he had met with opportunities for conversing familiarly with the scholars who adorn our capital and our universities.

‘It was once suggested to me that even his arduous and most meritorious labours in the elucidation the Scriptures, might have no very favourable influence upon his judgment, when he directed his thoughts, as an editor and as a critic, towards the profane writers of antiquity. Upon this point, I shall not myself attempt to decide; nor do I think it necessary, upon the present occasion, to enlarge upon the very different qualifications for criticism, in those who undertake to explain the *sacred* writings, and those who are employed upon the *classical* writers of antiquity. But in justice to Mr. Wakefield, and with frequent and important differences of opinion from him upon controversial questions in theology, I must acknowledge the success, and commend the judgment with which he applied his philological learning to the illustration of the scriptures.

‘The natural vigour of his mind, the great increase of his knowledge, and the gradual improvement of his taste, are visible in many of his later English productions: for in point of elegance and correctness as well as energy, they far surpass the earlier productions of his pen in his own language.

‘He seems to have composed in *Latin* with great ease and rapidity, I mean in his later works, when practice had enabled him to overcome the difficulties of which he complains in his Memoirs. Habit, no doubt, was accompanied by improvement, as well as by facility. But, in common with many other scholars, he had not attained to any eminence in the art of what Wyttienbach calls “*vel Latine scribendi, vel bene.*” Life of Ruhnken, pag. 227. — In the general structure of his sentences there is something of harshness and embarrassment. His periods are seldom harmonious; and none, I fear, of his *Latin* productions are wholly free from faults, which he would have been taught to avoid in our best public seminaries, and of which I have seen many glaring instances in the works of archbishop Potter, Dr. John Taylor, Mr. Toup, and several eminent scholars now living, who were brought up in private schools.

‘In thus endeavouring to account for the imperfections of Mr. Wakefield’s writings, I would not be understood to depreciate their *real, great, and solid* merit. Many who, like myself, discern those imperfections, are far below Mr. Wakefield, not only in industry, but in acuteness; not only in extent, but, perhaps, in accuracy of knowledge; not only in the contributions which they have made, or endeavoured

deavoured to make, to our general stock of knowledge, but in their capacity to make them so largely or so successfully.

‘ While, therefore, we state what Mr. Wakefield has *not* done, let us bear in mind what he *actually* did ; and when we enumerate the causes, which might have enabled him to *do better*, let us remember the *obstacles* with which he had to contend, when he *did so well*.

‘ He had fewer incentives than other men to exertion, from secular emoluments. He had fewer opportunities for improvement than others, from access to public libraries, from the advantages of public education, and above all from the company of persons accurately and profoundly learned. But his diligent researches, his extensive and various knowledge, his zeal for the diffusion of learning, and his solicitude for the discovery of truth, will always be remembered with respect by unprejudiced judges, who consider the numerous difficulties with which he had to struggle, and the virtuous motives by which he was actuated.

‘ For my part, I shall ever think of him as one of the best scholars produced by my own country in my own age ; and as one of the best men who, in *any* country, or in *any* age, have examined the evidences of Christianity seriously, believed them sincerely, defended them earnestly, and endeavoured to practise the duties which it inculcates, steadfastly and faithfully.’

In addition to these remarks, a Clergyman of the Church of England, whose name is not given, has drawn a very neat character of his lamented friend.

Dr. Pett, also, who attended Mr. W. in his last illness, has furnished a sketch of the death-bed scene, and an account of the progress of the fatal fever, (a typhus,) which are equally creditable to his feelings and his judgment.

The interest of this publication has induced us considerably to extend this Article, yet we have omitted many passages which we had designed to extract. If we have taken a favourable view of the subject, we can assure our readers that it has arisen from no partiality for excentricities and questionable opinions, but from the lively impression in favour of Mr. Wakefield, made on our minds by the many proofs here afforded of his eminent private worth and high mental culture. We can never be brought to call in question his sincerity, nor to believe that he intended mischief ; and whatever grave authority may have observed, there never was a heart more a stranger to hypocrisy than his. It does not become us to comment on the sentence which a tribunal of the country pronounced on him : but we shall venture to observe that, in his case, the Forum did not suffer a regard for the Porch and the Grove to bias its decrees ; that the sternness of the laws did not relax in favour of the Muses ; and that the little success of Mr. Wakefield, as an advocate in his own cause, shews that sim-

plicity and ingenuousness are not the choicest weapons of defence in our courts. We cannot refrain, also, from expressing our surprize and regret that it was deemed unsafe by the Magistrates of the county of Dorset, to allow an eminent scholar to have daily intercourse with his family, when the same privilege had been before allowed in London to greater offenders, and to persons of far less consideration.

That we are not singular in our estimate of Mr. Wakefield's character appears with weighty evidence, from the highly respectable patronage which he experienced, when the sentence of the law took him from active life. The first names for rank and character, and persons of opinions very opposite to his own, graced the list of subscribers to a fund which a few friends undertook to raise; and the sum amounted to 5000*l.*, notwithstanding that some newspapers denounced all the contributors as disaffected persons. The testimonies of Dr. Parr, of Professors Heyne and Jacobs, the monuments which he has left behind him, and the absence of detractors, leave no room for doubt in regard to the variety and extent of his learning; and we are informed that, at no period of his past life, was he advancing more rapidly in this career than at the time immediately preceding that in which he was removed from all the pursuits of this world.

A mezzotinto portrait of Mr. Wakefield, prefixed to the first volume, exhibits a countenance strongly marked, and much in harmony with the features of his mind.

ART. V. *Thoughts on the Trinity.* By George Isaac Huntingford, D.D. F.R.S., Warden of Winchester College, and Bishop of Gloucester. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies.

WITH a pertness which it is not easy to restrain, modern wit has denominated the Trinity, "a Bishop-making and Bishop-promoting doctrine." We, however, consider this subject as of too awful a nature to be viewed through the medium of levity, and are not disposed to substitute ludicrous insinuations for serious inquiry; though we cannot but observe with real regret that the dignitaries of the church are attempting to revive this unpropitious controversy. In Dr. Huntingford's pamphlet before us, we perceive the man of learning, the calm reasoner, and the liberal Christian; yet we will honestly confess that we perused his '*Thoughts on the Trinity*' with more concern than pleasure; because he appears not to us to have thrown any fresh light on this mysterious point, or to have removed any of the difficulties with which it

it is enveloped. When we say this, we disclaim all intention of entering the lists against him, for we have no wish to resuscitate a dispute which, from the manner in which it has hitherto been conducted, promises no beneficial result. At the same time, we feel it to be a duty which we owe to our theological readers, since the subject has been thus recently discussed by so respectable a writer as the Bishop of Gloucester, to state our opinion of the true point of view in which it ought to be placed; and to notice the kind of reasoning employed by this champion, in support of that side of the question which he steps forwards to defend.

That the nature of the Deity is incomprehensible by us is one of those negative truths, to which all men readily assent: but this is no proof of our believing the essence of an incomprehensible proposition. Here our belief goes no farther than a belief in our ignorance. Dr. H. observes that 'nothing can be so mysterious as the existence of God, and yet to believe that God exists is the foundation of all religion;' from which he infers that Mystery and Religion are inseparable: but if, by Religion, he means religious belief, he is not perhaps strictly correct. The existence of God is a matter of deduction or demonstration, and so far is no mystery, but a rational object of faith and an intelligible basis of religion; the *mode* of that existence is beyond the discovery of the human intellect, or is a complete mystery, and as such presents no object of faith to natural reason; nor is our comprehension of it in any way necessary to natural religion. Revelation may discover to us more of the nature of the Deity, of his perfections, and of his purposes, than we can possibly acquire by the utmost efforts of our intellectual powers; yet still our faith, if it be accurately traced, will be found to go no farther than the actual knowledge which we attain by virtue of that discovery. When our Saviour informs us that "God is a Spirit," we fully acquiesce in the doctrine: but what is the amount of the acquiescence? We only believe, as Dr. H. remarks, that God is 'something which is not material, or incorporeal. Here we are lost.' Here, then, he might have added, our faith stops, just where the mystery commences; so that it is the negative of corporeality to God, and not positive notions respecting the nature of the Divine Spirit, which is the true amount of our faith. It is the same with regard to all subjects of a mysterious nature. We believe in the union of the soul and body, because we know the fact; of the *mode* of that union, we know nothing, and consequently believe nothing.

The doctrine of the Trinity, if a doctrine of Revelation, must be received as a matter of fact, on the evidence of Divine  
Testimony;

Testimony; hence, as the Bishop justly observes, 'on the ground of scripture the question must ultimately stand.' To scripture, then, the appeal should be solely made; and as, from the nature of the subject, we can acquire not an atom of knowledge beyond what is revealed, it behoves us rigidly to confine ourselves within the limits of Revelation. Here we are enjoined to perform the rite of baptism "in the name of the Father, of the Son, and of the Holy Spirit;" and we are informed that the Son is "the only-begotten of the Father," and that the Holy Spirit "proceedeth from the Father." What is the fair amount of this testimony? Are they anywhere expressly said to be *three persons constituting one Godhead*? Are not terms forced into this controversy which are not justified by scripture, and can those terms assist its elucidation? Can the words *Person, Substance, Subsistence, and consubstantial*, facilitate our comprehension? The Bp. of Gloucester tells those who object to the use of the expression "Trinity of the Godhead," on the ground of its not occurring in scripture, that the same objection may be made to the expression "Unity in the Godhead;" which is indeed true: but an adversary to his hypothesis will ask him if there be passages which assert that there are *three Gods*, as there are passages which unequivocally assert that there is *one God*? He will reply that a *plurality* of Gods is repeatedly asserted. This brings the matter fairly to issue: but what is the Bishop's mode of proof? We are concerned to state that he contends for the word *Elohim* as including the enunciation of this mysterious doctrine, without noticing what the learned Selden and others have remarked on the imbecility of this argument. When the word *Elohim* is applied to Moses, can it mean a plurality? When it is applied to the apparition raised by the Witch of Endor to personate Samuel, can it mean a plurality? When it is applied to Baal, can it mean a plurality? When in Exod. xxxii. 4. it is applied to the golden calf, can it mean a plurality? In the last of these instances, the case is decisive. "There was (as Dr. Geddes remarks) but *one* image, and the plural is probably used only for the sake of more majesty." Moreover, the Jews, who must be admitted to understand their own language, protest against the inference which Christians draw from the use of the plural term *Elohim*.

If the Trinity be proved, it must be by texts out of the *New* and not out of the *Old* Testament. The ancient Jews were idolators, but not Trinitarians. There is more evidence for its being a Christian than for its having been a Jewish or a patriarchal doctrine. Even supposing the tenet to be masked or veiled in the use of the word *Elohim*, it was not displayed in

in any sacred rite, no baptism nor circumcision having been performed in three names expressive of Father, Son, and Holy Spirit. In short, the question is, whether it makes a part of the Revelation of the New Covenant?—so that we need not pass the boundaries of the New Testament.

When the Bishop of Gloucester observes that, 'on the principles of reason, no man can prove that the Deity cannot reside in Three Spiritual Intelligences,' we allow that his remark is perfectly just: but it is also perfectly nugatory. The point in debate does not respect what cannot be disproved, but what has been actually discovered or revealed: the anti-trinitarian does not undertake to prove that three spiritual intelligences cannot reside in the Godhead: but he calls on the trinitarian to shew what passages of scripture authorize him in asserting that they *do* so reside. The same remark will apply to a similar position of Dr. H. in a subsequent section. 'The eternity of Three Spiritual Intelligences in quality of one Godhead, we cannot prove to be a doctrine erroneous; because we have no sufficient knowledge of Spirituality and Essentially Divine Nature.' To what do such propositions tend? They can only serve to invert the order in which the subject ought to be contemplated. Proof of the affirmative is required from the advocate of the doctrine, and not proof of its absolute impossibility from the opponent. It must rest on positive evidence.

Supposing the doctrine of a Trinity in Unity to be established in scripture, the next inquiry will be into the mode of worship which the same scripture inculcates. Are we, to use the words of the collect for Trinity Sunday, "to acknowledge the<sup>d</sup> Eternal Trinity, and to *worship* the Unity;" or are we left at liberty to worship each person separately as a distinct God, or all conjointly as making One only true God? Some directions seem to be necessary in so difficult a case: but we look in vain for any such in the N. T. We have not Father, Son, and Holy Spirit mentioned together; except in the Baptismal Ordinance, and in a Doxology or benediction at the end of one of St. Paul's Epistles,—for 1 John v. 7. is now abandoned by all the learned as spurious; and it is for the reader to consider how far they are thus pointed out as distinct objects of worship; or how far, if distinct objects of worship, they can be regarded as only one object of worship.

We deem it proper thus to state the real matter at issue between Trinitarians and Unitarians: but, as we purpose not to become principals in the controversy, we shall not particularly animadvert on the several passages in the N. T. on which Dr. H. rests his demonstration. We must, however,

ever, observe that, on several occasions, he takes weak ground, and manages his argument with little success. In § 44 he thus reasons :

‘The zeal of the Jews for the name of God is well known. How then can we account for St. Thomas’s addressing himself on a most remarkable occasion in these words to Christ, “My Lord, and my God !” (St. John, xx. 28.) We cannot sufficiently account for it otherwise, than by saying, that even to this Apostle, who was far from being credulous, the Resurrection appeared to be, as it certainly was, an incontestible proof that our Lord was, what he had asserted himself to be, in nature Divine. But if Divine in nature, then God.’

Here the objector might remark that the Bishop has proved too much ; for if a resurrection establishes divinity, we shall all at last be proved to be divine, and consequently Gods ; since it is said, “God hath raised up the Lord and will raise us up also.” To be in nature divine, and absolutely one in essence with God, are not synonymous expressions ; for true Christians are mentioned as being “made partakers of the divine nature” (*Θείας κοινωνίας*).

Again, § 59. affords us this singular comment on a passage of scripture, which we did not expect to see quoted in this argument :

“I thank God that I baptized none of you,” says St. Paul to the Corinthians (1 Cor. i. 14). Why should the Apostle manifest so great earnestness, and why express himself so very strongly on this occasion ? Because, he thought it would be dishonouring Christ if he had admitted disciples in his own name. And wherefore should he be anxious on that account, if he had believed Christ to have been merely human, and to have been still sleeping in the grave ? He could have incurred no evil, present or future, had Christ been merely human, and still sleeping in the grave. It is clear then he believed Christ to be more than human ; to be raised from the grave ; to be the witness, the judge, the rewarder of his actions.’

Surely Dr. H. cannot call this *reasoning*. St. Paul must have believed that Christ was one with the Father ; because he thanked God that he had been generally employed in baptizing the Corinthian converts ! What a strange inference ! The Apostle was the servant of Christ ; and his thankfulness on this occasion proves his fidelity to his master, but does not shew us what he thought of the person of Christ.

It is difficult to attempt to explain the distinct personality of each person, without running into direct Tritheism ; and equally difficult to explain the priority of the Father, without destroying the Godship of the Son and Spirit. Dr. H. has not been more fortunate than his predecessors in conquering this embarrassment. He says that the Father, as communicating

cating Godhead, must be the origin of Godhead; yet he contends that there is no priority of *time*, but only a priority of *order*. There seems as little ground for this distinction, as for his remark on the Apostle's creed, that, 'though the word "Trinity" is not mentioned in it, the substantial meaning of the word is implied.' That man must be a keen discernor of Mysteries, who can see the Trinity in this creed; which respects not the eternal generation of the Son, but merely the generation of Jesus Christ in the womb of Mary.

On the whole, we are persuaded that these Thoughts will create for Dr. H. very little reputation as a good logician; whatever effect they may have produced on his own mind. From a passage in the preface, it might be inferred that the Bishop formerly had his doubts at least of this doctrine; for he says that 'he has been long impressed with the force of this solemn charge, "when thou art *converted*, strengthen thy brethren:" but whether he be a convert or an uniform believer, he considers himself as having done his duty by this attempt to support what he regards as the 'antient faith;' and though there appears little prospect of converting infidels, he may nevertheless be hailed as a strengthener of the brethren.

A reply to this pamphlet has been advertized, but we have not yet seen it.

ART. VI. *The Life of C. G. Lamoignon Malesherbes*, formerly first President of the Court of Aids, and Minister of State, Member of the Academy, &c. Translated from the French by Edward Mangin. 12mo. pp. 245. 3s. sewed. Longman and Co.

THESE pages exhibit the outlines of a character distinguished most eminently by purity and worth, and at the same time recommended by all the advantages which are conferred by family, rank, and accomplishments both elegant and solid. Europe, in the eighteenth century, does not furnish an individual of greater interest, and on whose history the mind dwells with more satisfaction and delight.—The narrative has little to boast on the score of method or arrangement: but, as it details the most interesting passages in the life of such a man, it cannot fail to engage attention, and is intitled to a considerable share of our notice.

M. de Malesherbes was born at Paris on the 16th of December 1721; his grandfather was the President de Lamoignon of the reign of Louis XIV., the patron of Letters and the friend of Boileau; his father, the second son of the President, filled the high situation of first President of the court of Aids, and was afterward raised to that of Chancellor of France:

'Malesherbes,

‘Malesherbes, destined for the highest offices of the state, applied himself with enthusiasm to the study of the laws.’—

‘Possessing an intense love of application, he could not fail to benefit by the wise precepts of his father. After studying with great advantage under the Jesuits, and obtaining a perfect knowledge of equity, he employed his hours upon history and political economy, and evinced a degree of erudition very rare, at a time when all the young men of rank, influenced by a corrupt court\*, abandoned themselves to the pursuit of effeminate pleasures.

‘His father then could have procured him the post of counsellor to the parliament; but he too well knew the importance of such a situation, and would not allow his son to be confounded with the herd of those, who, purchasing the liberty of deciding on the lives and properties of their fellow-citizens, thought themselves exempted from the necessity of acquiring that knowledge which would fit them to exercise with dignity the most august functions of the magistracy.

‘With the intention of preparing his son, he had him appointed deputy solicitor-general; in appearance a place of great inferiority, but which gave him an opportunity to try his first steps in the walk of politics.

‘In right of his office, Malesherbes frequently addressed the parliament, and there always displayed unerring good sense, a sweet, persuasive eloquence, and a profound acquaintance with mankind and human affairs: in short, he made himself remarkable in a situation wherein others were scarcely noticed.

‘It was not until he had undergone such a trial as this, that his father obtained him the appointment of counsellor to the parliament of Paris; and he was then only 24 years old, but had more reflection and more judgment than many of his seniors.

‘Six years after he obtained the reversion of the place of first president of the Court of Aids, held by his father, whom he ultimately succeeded December 14. 1750.’

The ability, courage, and firmness which he displayed in this situation, are known to all Europe. Some very remarkable instances are here detailed, which we should quote with pleasure, if unrestrained by limits.

In April 1771, the unparalleled measure projected by the daring and unprincipled Maupeou was carried into effect; the supreme courts of the metropolis were all decreed to be abolished; the venerable magistrates were banished; and new tribunals were erected which were filled by men who were sold to the Court. No civil government which could thus conduct itself could be expected to stand. The behaviour of the President of the court of Aids on the occasion is temperate, great, and worthy of himself.

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\* \* The court of Lewis XV.’

The court in which M. de Malesherbes presided was suffered to exist some time after the others had been annihilated; and he adopted the measure of expostulating against its intended dissolution. We subjoin a part of his address in that juncture, as it displays his intrepidity, and his benevolent and patriotic views:

"Terror," said he, "has not shaken our firmness: it is notorious that all manner of access is denied to truth: our demand to be heard will doubtless expose us to the effects of powerful hatred—but our silence would insure our being accused by the whole nation of treason or cowardice.

"The rights of that nation are those alone for which we this day contend: in other times, we should have told you that those of the magistracy were violated with every circumstance of inhumanity; that the magistrates themselves are dispersed over the kingdom by your orders, and, by an unexampled species of cruelty, care has been taken to select the most lonely districts, where they might want all the conveniences, and even the necessaries of life, to aggravate their disgrace.

"These courts are now the last remaining protectors of the helpless and unfortunate; all the rest are reduced to mute and passive submission: no individual will dare to expose himself to the anger of a commissary, or a commandant; much less to that of a minister. And, although we were not interested to fulfil our functions:—though we were deaf to the voice of duty, yet we cannot be so to the moans of a people suffering by the interruption of justice.

"Cruelly must the rights of the nation have been invaded, and potent must the sentiments of virtue and honour be in magistrates who can thus lay themselves open to imprisonment, to exile, to the injuring of their fortunes, to the loss of health, and even to the loss of life, which has been the fate of many amongst those condemned to banishment.

"By what fatality are they urged thus to force the men of France to remind their governor of those laws which Providence has imposed upon him, together with his crown? Sire! You hold it from the Almighty—but do not refuse us the satisfaction of believing that you also owe your power to the voluntary submission of your subjects: or rather—without agitating questions of this melancholy nature, which should find no place under a reign such as yours—deign to reflect that the divine power is the origin of all lawful dominion; but that the supreme happiness of the people should ever be its end and aim; and that God has put the diadem on the heads of kings, only to ensure to mankind security of existence, liberty of person, and the tranquil enjoyment of property.

"Sovereigns may have more or less power, but their duties are invariably the same: should there be any so unfortunate as to preside over a people destitute of laws, they are compelled to supply the place of these, as well as they can, by their personal love of justice, and a prudent choice of those in whom they deposit their authority. But—if there are laws—if the people look on them as the ramparts of their liberty—if they are really a useful restraint against the abuses of authority

—excuse our making it a question, Sire, whether, in any state, a sovereign can dispense with such laws : it is enough for us to tell a prince who is the friend of justice, that he ought not.

“ It is given out that your majesty means to replace those members of the parliament who have refused to be the despicable tools of your ministers : we must be so bold as to assure you, Sire, that there will be found none to fill their room, but men who, in accepting that station, will *sign their own dishonour* : one part of them, from ambition, will be content to face the public odium ; the rest will sacrifice themselves with regret, but be forced to it by indigence : *the first, consequently, must be already corrupt—the others likely soon to become the same.*”

“ Such, Sire, are the judges you are about to give to your people ; and by such as these must be determined the fortunes—the reputations—the existence of Frenchmen ! On the other side, the ministers, at their pleasure, take away the properties and subsistence of the citizens—and their feelings as men of honour are all they have left —*for these cannot wither even beneath the blight of arbitrary power.*”

“ These expostulations only increased the fury of the ministers ; and Malesherbes was banished to his own country-seat by a “ *lettre de cachet*,” dated the 8th of April.”

We cannot forbear laying before our readers the picture which is here given of the worthy President, when released from the cares and toils of his exalted station. This respite from active life continued for more than three years.

“ Malesherbes, withdrawn from the stage of public affairs, passed his days in serenity at his retirement ; dividing his time between his family, his books, and the cultivation of his gardens.

“ He had written a vast number of valuable remarks on the political condition of France, the administration of justice, upon agriculture, and natural history. These observations, which he designed to arrange, and which were afterwards carried off by the revolutionary barbarians, breathed the spirit of an enlarged philanthropy, an enthusiastic love of his native land, and a lofty and valorous independence.

“ Every hour of his day was marked by benevolent actions or useful discoveries. Rising before the dawn, he walked out to watch the progress of vegetation, and admire, in respectful silence, the ever-new and various wonders which nature pours forth with a lavish hand ; for the benefit of human kind.

“ He encouraged, by his example, the numerous labourers whom he employed in tillage ; with the spade in his hand, he took delight in digging the ground ; and never forsook his task, till, exhausted by fatigue, he would retire to repose himself under the shade of trees which his own hand had planted.

“ His mansion was furnished in the most unostentatious style ; for he found more pleasure in giving bread to an hundred poor persons, than in squandering immense sums on costly decorations. His place was laid out upon the principles of the old gothic manner ; accordingly, people of taste advised him to throw all down, and rebuild upon a  
modera

modern plan—but he had inherited the edifice; all his ancestors had lived in it, and he preserved it as a family-piece; a sacred monument of his attachment and respect to his forefathers.

His table was economically supplied, and his domestics few, although his annual expence was considerable; but his wealth was employed for the gratification and advantage of his dependents: canals carefully formed, meadows reclaimed, marshes drained, the roads in his neighbourhood skillfully made, dykes opposed to the violence of the torrent, tustrageous walks, and picturesque plantations, were the objects on which Malesherbes expended his income.

To facilitate the communication with different parts of the country, he constructed several bridges of solid masonry: the traveller, too, shared his benevolence; a shady walk near the high-road protected him from the fervor of the sun; and for the repose of the humble footpassenger, commodious benches were at hand, while a fountain of pure water flowed to appease his thirst. He also contrived means to lighten the fatigues of the weaker and more amiable sex; and built convenient sheds on the borders of the river, where the cares of domestic industry obliged the women of the village to remain exposed during the most rigorous seasons.

Owing to this the inhabitants loved him as a parent; and under his influence every one enjoyed a degree of respectable ease: the children received instruction, the aged were held in honour; and the peasant who had cultivated his fields with most care, and managed his flocks or herds to the greatest advantage, obtained a premium, which gave birth to a virtuous emulation, and tended highly to the improvement of agriculture.

Malesherbes derived his chief pleasure from the pursuit of natural history, and had acquired most extensive knowledge in that science: he wrote some very curious observations on the *larch tree*, and the *maqaleb*, or wood of St Lucia; he also composed a treatise on *piners*, and another on the varieties of the *orchis*, &c.

He planted, in his grounds, at Malesherbes, a quantity of *shrubs* and *exotics*; these he had even familiarized to the climate, and multiplied them to such a degree, that, in straying through his woods, one might fancy himself transported into distant regions, where the *acacia*, the *palm*, and the trees of *Palestine* grow. High rocks, magnificent water falls, and majestic pines, added still more to the illusion; forming a situation singularly picturesque, and a display of enchanting scenery.

Whilst this venerable philosopher forgot in the bosom of tranquillity the shameful manœuvres of court intrigue, the disgraceful traffic of corruption, and the arbitrary acts of despotic power, Lewis XV. wore out amongst his mistresses the remnant of a despicable life; and his perfidious counsellors continued, day after day, to dig still deeper that abyss which ere long was destined to ingulph the antique colossus of the monarchy.

On the accession of Louis XVI. the supreme courts were restored, and the President de Malesherbes resumed his functions; and shortly afterward, he was appointed Minister by the

same monarch. Among the first acts of his ministry, was an examination of the state of the prisons. He set at liberty the victims of oppression, took methods to render the gaols salubrious, and regulated their internal administration :

‘ The prisons, thronged under the Duke de La Valliere, soon enclosed none but malefactors, or persons dangerous to the interests of social life : all those who, by a long captivity, had expiated some trivial indiscretion, unguarded remarks, or speeches perhaps a little too free, were restored to society, and to their disconsolate families. Thus the name of Malesherbes was in every mouth ; and all France blessed both the sovereign who took counsel of a sage, and him who so amply justified the confidence of his prince. The report which Malesherbes, on this occasion, laid before the king, affected him deeply : he could not refrain from tears on learning that a vast number of the imprisoned, worn out by cruel treatment, had actually lost their senses ; and that others, from want of proper assistance, were a prey to the most deplorable infirmities : he thanked Malesherbes for affording their wretchedness all the alleviation in his power, and entrusted him with a considerable sum of money for their relief.’

The abilities and virtues of Turgot and Malesherbes, aided by the good intentions of Louis XVI., were insufficient to stem the corruption of the court ; and in the struggle, these good and great men, as might be expected, fell victims to their noble efforts. Malesherbes, though he did not continue a whole year in power, contrived to render numerous and signal services to his fellow-subjects and his country. One object, on which he had laboured much, and in which he failed of success, was the restoration of the Protestants to their civil rights.

Having resigned his office, Malesherbes again retired to the enjoyment of the country, and afterward employed some years in travelling through France, Switzerland, and Holland. Several interesting particulars, and anecdotes, are recorded in this part of the narrative : but we must confine ourselves to the more prominent features of the portraiture.

The subsequent extract, while it shows the consideration in which M. de Malesherbes was held, displays at the same time his patriotism and loyalty : it also manifests the infatuation of the weak monarch, who was not insensible to his worth, but who could not appreciate the value of his advice :

‘ In 1786, the king again invited him to his councils, without appointing him any particular office in the administration.

‘ The reins of government hung loose in the hands of a well-meaning but feeble monarch ; the parliaments had once more set up the standard of opposition ; day by day the national debt augmented : in short, every thing announced the approach of a fatal crisis, when the ruling powers implored the long-required aid of Malesherbes.

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‘ The ministers, in calling him then to the cabinet, felt the propriety of sustaining their own measures by the interests of a man of spotless reputation, and of popularity to attract the nation’s confidence. But Malesherbes was too clear-sighted not to perceive the abyss into which they designed to plunge their country: he poured forth in council the most formidable opinions; opposed all the vigour of his intellect to the erroneous advice they gave the king, and replied to the fantastic schemes of ministers, only by downright calculations and stubborn facts.

‘ Unfortunately his voice was not heard: his apprehensions they regarded as chimerical, his projects as hazardous, and his system of administration as a good man’s dream; they therefore counteracted his best efforts, and persuaded Lewis XVI. not to listen to him.

‘ Malesherbes, compelled to keep silence, could not behold, without terror, the calamities they were preparing for their native country. He determined to make one more experiment; and composed two memoirs on the state of affairs, in which, with a bold and steady hand, he rent asunder the veil that concealed them.

‘ It is here that the mighty views and incorruptible honesty of the author are discernible; he has here compressed, in the ablest manner, every striking historical incident, and every idea which the profoundest reason could suggest: a faithful picture of the ills he warned them to shun; a frank and energetic defence of the respective rights and duties of king and people; the whole proclaiming the talents of a statesman. At this era, had his advice prevailed—what benefits would have accrued! what woes would have been spared!

‘ But the king was blinded by perfidious counsellors; men destitute of experience, who had glided from the toilet of the wanton, into the highest situations of the realm, could not endure to have their infirmities exposed; and Malesherbes, abhorred by the courtiers, the object of their malice and of their sarcasms, determined to quit for ever a court, to which, against his inclination, he had returned; and to pass the remnant of his days in the calm of solitude, and in the bosom of his family.

‘ The two memoirs, composed by Malesherbes before his final resignation, have suffered the fate of most of his other manuscript works, and been swallowed up in the bloody archives of the revolutionary tribunal.

‘ The friends of this eminent man, who knew what they contained, declare that they considered them as a perfect introduction to a history of the Revolution; they displayed an abundance of acute and philosophic observations, derived from experience, and from the histories of other countries; and exhibited the real situation of affairs and persons at the epoch of that memorable convulsion, which led the way to the establishment of the republic.

‘ Lewis XVI. was so egregiously prepossessed, that he had not even read over these two essays: in vain did Malesherbes, at different times, supplicate him for the indulgence of a private interview; he never could obtain one, and artifice at length succeeded in estranging the most virtuous of counsellors from the weakest of kings.

‘ When at last the eyes of Lewis were opened, he examined the memoirs of Malesherbes, and perceived that he alone had discovered

the true remedy for healing the wounds of the state: he then lamented not having listened to his admonitions—and, alas! late and ineffectual repentance! could not refrain from shedding tears at the retrospect.

‘ In the recesses of his woods, the news of the *Revolution* reached Malesherbes; and he heard of the event without astonishment; he was even, for an instant, sanguine enough to hope that he should now witness the extirpation of abuses; but he soon found that they reformed ancient institutions, only to fabricate establishments for new men and factious leaders, cursed with the ambition of becoming *great*; and fearless of the destruction they might bring on their country, so they could, in the end, but seat themselves upon her ruins.

‘ He, nevertheless, saw, with concern, wise and moderate men forsake their public stations at the moment when their assistance was most requisite.’

The chief remainder of his days were now employed in digesting plans for the improvement of agriculture; and his scheme of a society for the advancement of this branch of political economy shews in a strong light the bent of his mind towards the public welfare.

We cannot pass over the grand and affecting passage in Malesherbes's life, which elevates him so much above ordinary men, and which represents the honest monitor of the monarch's prosperous days soliciting leave to share his dangers. When we behold him exerting his voice in favour of his forlorn master, how grateful is the echo of it amid the unutterable horrors in the midst of which it was lifted up! In this extract, we contemplate a letter of the veteran hero of humanity, which is the crowning-act of a man who spent his life in deeds of virtue; and it will never be perused without awakening the soul to the most delightful and sublime emotions:

‘ Malesherbes, in his solitude, heard the dreadful particulars of what happened during the months of June August, and September;—like the philosopher of old, he folded himself in his mantle, and bemoaned the sufferings of his unfortunate country!

‘ He had now attained the age of seventy years, and already saw approaching the termination of a life every moment of which had been consecrated to the happiness of his fellow creatures, when he was informed by the public prints that the National Convention had passed a decree for the trial of Lewis XVI.

‘ The great soul of Malesherbes was deeply afflicted; he remembered all the virtues of a king distinguished for his love of mercy; the best energies of his early years were awakened in his heart—and, departing instantly for Paris, he wrote the following letter to the president of the National Convention.

“ Paris,

" Paris, December 11, 1792. First year of the Republic.

" Citizen President,

" I know not if the National Convention will allow Lewis XVI. counsel to defend him, or whether he will be permitted to choose any; if so, I desire Lewis may be informed, that, should he make choice of me for that office, I am ready to undertake it.

" I do not ask you to disclose my proposal to the Convention; for I am far from thinking myself a person of such importance as to attract its notice; but I was twice called to the councils of him who was my master, in times when that station was an object of ambition to all; I owe him the same service, when, in the opinion of many, the post is one of some danger.

" Did I possess any possible method of acquainting him with my inclinations, I should not take the liberty of addressing myself to you.

" It occurs to me, that, from the situation you hold, you may have a better opportunity than any one else of giving him this information.

" I am, with respect," &c.

" This letter deserves to occupy the first page in the annals of virtue; it should remain an everlasting monument of courage, of modesty, and greatness of mind: nor can ancient or modern times afford a brighter instance of exalted generosity. Here we behold Malesherbes; and history will inscribe amidst its fairest records, this sublime act of a man of seventy, who, at the moment when terror chilled the ardour of the bravest, steps forward to solicit, as the most signal favour, permission to defend a king, bereft of his crown, and treated as the lowest criminal."

The event of his interference, and the consequences of it to himself and his family, form an indelible blot on a vast population, too well known to require any reference to be here made to them. We shall close this article with the concluding page of this little volume, to the sentiments of which we cordially subscribe:

" Malesherbes died (under the guillotine) aged seventy-two years, four months, and fifteen days. He was, perhaps, the wisest and best man of his time; and his character will descend without a stain to posterity.

" The inflexible foe of arbitrary power, and the undaunted defender of the oppressed, throughout his life he lost no opportunity of drying up the tears of the afflicted, and never caused one to flow. The unassuming scholar, the liberal patron of polite letters, he was not content with inculcating in his writings the precepts of virtue, but gave the example in his conduct.

" Some foreigners have endeavoured to tarnish his fame, by accusing him, in a libel printed at Berne, of being a *philosopher*. This is a singular reproach! If philosophy be the love of wisdom, Malesherbes well deserved the accusation. But the Revolution, while it confounded ideas of every kind, also changed the meaning of words:

Thus, because some villains have usurped the title of patriots, patriotism is called crime; because fiends, clad in the sacerdotal habit, presided at the massacres of St. Bartholomew, piety is termed fanaticism; and because the factious have availed themselves of the authority of philosophers, philosophy and sedition are become synonymous: but the balance seems to be again restored; and this confusion of terms will, doubtless, shortly vanish.

'The government has conferred honour on itself by ordering the bust of Malesherbes to be placed amongst the statues of those great men whose names reflect lustre upon their country.

'All the fine arts should combine to perpetuate his memory: *Sculpture* should bid his features live again; *Poetry* should celebrate his virtues; and *Eloquence* weep over his grave.'

The second Lord Mansfield, who had resided long in France, speaking in his place in the House of Peers of the enormities of Robespierre, when he came to the public execution of Malesherbes, applied to the conduct of the bloody tyrant on that occasion the remarkable words of Tacitus, *virtutem ipsam exscindere concupivit*.

We need scarcely add how much we have been gratified by the perusal of this little volume; which is very modestly introduced by the translator, to whom the English public are much obliged for enabling them thus to 'contemplate the life of a wise and honest man.' What nobler or more instructive object can they study!

ART. VII. *Sermons on the Evils that are in the World, and on various other Topics*; from the German of the Rev. George Joachim Zöllikofer, Minister of the Reformed Congregation at Leipsick. By the Rev. Wm. Tooke, F.R.S. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 576. in each Volume. 11. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

If this preacher enters a pointed protest against introducing into the pulpit metaphysical investigations, and 'doctrines which are more fitted to beget doubt than faith,' he is by no means disposed to confine public exhortation to a few subjects: on the contrary, he contends for the propriety of making every thing, which belongs to the whole range and extent of practical wisdom, tributary to the teacher. We have seen, on former occasions\*, with what success he avails himself of this privilege; and with what varied and persuasive eloquence he excites his hearers to virtue, and to the advancement of the real dignity of man.

\* See Rev. Vol. xx. N. S. p. 164, and xl. p. 187.

In the present discourses, M. Zollikofer directs the thoughts of his auditors to the difficult subjects of natural and moral evil; not, however, by leading them into those discussions, in which they will "find no end, in wandering mazes lost:" but he endeavours to furnish them with such conceptions as may serve to make them 'satisfied with the capacities which God has given them, with the bounds which he has prescribed to them, with the place which he has allotted to them in his kingdom, with the burthens which he has laid on them, with the tasks which he has assigned to them, and with the purposes to which he has appointed them, without accusing him of any want of goodness.' In this manner, he endeavours to enlighten them, to make them better, and thus to promote their felicity. His fundamental doctrine is that 'God is supremely good, that he is Love itself, that he governs his creatures with the utmost lenity and forbearance, that he judges them with the most perfect equity, that he is more inclined to bless than to punish, and that in all that he commands or forbids, in all that he gives or denies them, he seeks their happiness alone.' Through this cheerful medium, he recommends us to view what are called evils as the only means of becoming truly religious, satisfied, and happy.

Evils are classed under two general heads, viz. physical, or natural, and moral evil; by the former, we understand such evils as depend on our nature and frame, and arise from the operation of external circumstances and objects; by the latter, such evils as proceed from sinful dispositions and conduct. In this order, the preacher attends to them; and after having given a catalogue of them \*, he endeavours to convince us of the truth of his text (*His work is perfect: for all his ways are judgment*, Deut. xxxii. 4.) by stating and illustrating the following propositions, 'I. That many things which we call evils are merely the necessary limitations of our nature and powers; and II. Many others are salutary cautions against far greater evils.'

We present our readers with the author's mode of illustrating the first of these propositions:

'First then there are many things which we call evils, and yet which, when considered in themselves alone, are no more than the necessary limitations of our nature and powers; and he that complains of these evils, complains that he is a man, and what is that

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\* Ignorance, error, weakness, pain, variety of wants, toilsome labour, bad success of it, unfortunate events, sensibility to hostile impressions from without, opposition, obstacles and difficulties in what we design and execute, sickness, dissolution, and death.'

but complaining that man exists? Man is man; I repeat it, Man is man, This, little as it may seem to say, is expressive of much. Man is therefore, on one hand, not a stone, not a plant, not merely a machine, not simply animal; but so likewise is he, on the other hand, not pure spirit, not an angel, no still higher being. As little then as the properties of a stone, of a plant, of an irrational animal befit him; just so little also are the privileges or the powers of a spirit, a superior being, not united with a body so organized as ours, or with one more perfect, adapted to him. Man can therefore not possess universal intellect, but only the intellect of a man; not universal sensation, but only the sensation of a man; not universal sagacity, but only the sagacity of a man; not universal knowledge and perception, but only the knowledge and perception of a man; not universal mechanical or mental power, but only the powers of a man. To every being, suit only certain and no other properties, only certain and no other capacities, only certain and no other privileges and powers, only a certain and no other mode of existence, of life, of happiness. As the lamb cannot have the strength of the lion, or the mole the keen and far-piercing eye of the eagle, since the lamb is a lamb, and the mole a mole; or since among the creatures of God, there must be lambs and moles: so neither can man have the intellect or the strength of a superior being, which probably can survey the universe entire, and set whole worlds in motion, since man is man; or since among the innumerable works of God, mankind must also be. And, were there no such creatures as we, were there only more perfect beings; then we should not exist, but other, more perfect creatures, in our place; we therefore should not be at all. And what intelligent man, on calm reflection, could wish that this were the case? —

‘This one consideration, my pious hearers, will teach us to regard many things, which we call evils, in another point of view, and shew us, that they are nothing but the consequences of the necessary circumscription of our nature and our capacities; that they are things which cannot but be, if in the world of God there should be men, or beings capable of human perfection, and of enjoying human happiness. To this class belong unimputable ignorance, unavoidable error, natural infirmity, want or declension of faculties. All these are undoubtedly imperfections; and if we chuse to call every imperfection an evil, then these are evils: but they are only imperfections and evils abstractedly considered, and not in regard to us, who are, what as men we can and ought to be, and who, as men, cannot be any other. What right have we then to complain of this, or make it a reproach to divine goodness?’

M. Zollikofer's method of reasoning on the second proposition is exactly in the same strain:

‘Rodily pain is positively a disagreeable sensation, a disagreeable mode of existence; it is in this consideration an evil; and it would be ridiculous for us to deny it, by maintaining, with some eccentric persons among the ancients, that we may be as tranquil and happy under these sensations as without them, or that pain is not pain. But this is likewise certain, that pain is a caution against still greater evils,

evils, and that, considered on this side, it is, or may be an advantage to us.'—

'So also is it with the disagreeable, the painful consequences, by which wrath, voluptuousness, every inordinate, violent passion is attended in our body. They are warnings of still greater evils. They are powerful incentives to become better and happier. What disorders, what ravages, would not such passions occasion, not only in the man who is addicted to them, but likewise in other persons with whom he is connected, if he himself did not suffer under them, if their impetuosity were not checked by painful sensations, if we were not incited by them to guard against their first attacks! Long, long ago would all social comfort have been destroyed, and society itself have fallen to the ground, had we been destitute of such powerful suggestions and restraints.'—

'What is true of corporeal pain, or such as arises from the state of the body, holds good likewise of mental pain, or such as is founded merely in the ideas of the mind. Disgust, trouble, vexation, grief, shame, disappointment, remorse, is mental pain. They are certainly unpleasant, painful sensations that arise, on our seeing that we have mistaken the truth and have plunged into error, that we have engaged in foolish and prejudicial affairs, or have executed good undertakings badly. They are unpleasant, painful sensations that arise when a man, by or without his own fault, fails in his designs, is forced to abandon his purposes, is wrong in his suppositions and his expectations; when a man has allowed himself to be over-reached by the cheat, duped by the flatterer, deceived by the false friend; when he loses the outward distinctions and goods in which he made the whole of his happiness to consist, or which he reckoned as an essential part of it; when a man renders himself and his character contemptible by easily avoidable follies and weaknesses. All these, and a hundred other things of the same kind, to a man of a feeling heart, may be as painful and still more so, than the indispositions and distempers that arise in his body. But even this pain, how deeply soever it may wound us, is not absolutely bad in itself. Even this pain is an admonition, a necessary wholesome admonition, to beware of greater evils. Its tendency is, to make us careful in the investigation of truth; considerate in our conclusions and undertakings; circumspect in the choice of our friends and familiars, in the prosecution of our designs, in the application of the necessary means; attentive to the whole of our conduct, and even to our minutest actions; modest in our judgments and expectations; moderate and temperate in the enjoyment of our fortunes. Were it not for these painful sensations, we should be ever adding error to error, failing to failing, be deceived by every semblance, become the prey and the sport of every impostor, be constantly judging and acting with greater rashness and folly, ever be flattered by idle hopes, and never become prudent and wise.'

By thus contemplating the evils and afflictions which occur in the present world, as means of discipline and amendment, we not only obtain consoling views of the divine administration,

tion, but are taught to form a true estimate of ourselves and of our state, as well as the true way of employing our faculties and exalting our nature. The preacher pursues the subject in several sermons; and in a strain of natural eloquence, he endeavours to reconcile us to Providence, and at the same time to rouse us to all pious and Christian duties. He shews that death itself is not that enormous evil which it is supposed to be, and introduces the discoveries of revelation to solve all the difficulties which may at present oppress us:

‘ Raise your thoughts into the future world, of which, thanks to Christianity, we have the most infallible assurance, and so many juster conceptions than the philosophers of antiquity had; elevate yourselves, I say, into the future world, which alone can completely solve the knotty points that now employ our thoughts, and which will certainly hereafter unravel all, and convince us that all things are right and good. The present state of man is not his whole appointment, is only the commencement of his life and the infinite process of the expansion of his powers. Eternity can compensate, supply, beautify, and regulate all. No faculty, no capacity, can be totally lost in the universe of God; nothing good, though no more than physical good, will be unserviceable for ever, or not draw after it other consequences as good.—Indeed punishments, just, severe punishments await the wilful sinner; and woe to him, whom the idea of these punishments does not deter from sin! He will suffer what is due to his deeds, suffer more, suffer more horribly, than he can at present conceive in the gloomiest hours of his life. But even these sufferings, these punishments, are ordained by the Supremely Good, who inflicts suffering on no one for the sake of making him suffer, but for producing good thereby. Sooner or later will God manifest himself to his whole creation as Love itself.

‘ Eternity,—a thought, which to us is still more word than thought,—eternity comprehends all things; but we cannot comprehend it with our intellect. It unravels all things; but how, we, mortals, cannot conceive. It leads and brings all to the goal; but when and whereby, is concealed from us. From eternity to eternity, from one great revolution of these or some other solar and mundane systems to another, what revolutions may not the living and sensible beings that belong to it undergo! What means for bringing light out of darkness, for effecting good, infinite good through ill, does it not contain! What results does it not allow to be expected by contemplative minds!—And shall that which is now disorder, or appears to be so; shall that be eternal, to appear to be so? Shall it never dissolve into the most beautiful, the most perfect order? And if it ever happen, though according to our mode of measuring time, never so late, after the lapse of never so many eternities and epochs; what will this moment of darkness and apparent disorder be to the light and harmony, this instant of suffering to the joy and bliss, that will then continue from eternity to eternity, as eternal as God?’

These

These considerations are followed by discourses on the coming of the Kingdom of God,—the General Judgment,—the Importance of the Christian Doctrine, and what we are and may become by it,—justification of Divine Providence, in regard to the terrestrial welfare of the impious and the pious,—sin the primary source of human misery,—public diversions,—the sources of Infidelity,—the Christian's preparation for future suffering,—the advantages which accrue to mankind from their being ignorant of the future,—the triumphs of death and of life,—the Spirit of Christianity,—Religion the constant friend of Man,—Self-knowledge,—the advantages of virtuous industry, and of moderation in the enjoyment of sensual pleasure,—whence it arises that Christianity operates not more efficaciously among its professors,—who is particularly qualified for being a Christian,—and on the brevity and burden of life.

We have not here enumerated all the subjects: but the above will serve to shew the nature of the contents of these volumes, which include in all 58 sermons, each introduced by a short appropriate prayer, into which the substance of the discourse is judiciously compressed. The sermon which explains the causes of the inefficacy of Christianity, among its professors, is preceded by this address to the Deity:

O God, thou hast called us to Christianity, and in it hast given us a very powerful means to virtue and to happiness. To what lengths might we not proceed in the practice of the former and in the enjoyment of the latter, how much good might we not do and enjoy, if Christianity were and yielded to us what it is designed and adapted to be and to yield to us! Yes, we alone are to blame, if we experience not its power, or experience it only in a smaller proportion. We consider and apply it not agreeably to its destination. We content ourselves but too often with a barren knowledge of it, with a blind, dead faith, with outward piety and devotion. Our heart takes not sufficient interest in it, we confine it to particular times and places, and separate it from the greatest part of our lives. Oh teach us to perceive this, with conviction to perceive it, and by that perception to be awakened to a salutary sentiment of shame, and to a better, a more faithful application of Christianity! May we henceforward do our utmost to remove whatever diminishes or impedes its efficacy in us, and open all the avenues of our heart to its improving and saving influence! May we always more clearly and rightly understand this heavenly doctrine, more firmly believe it, always more cordially revere and love it, always more sedulously use and apply it! May even the considerations in which we are about to engage, contribute somewhat to that end! Accompany them in this respect with thy blessing, O bountiful God! Let us perceive and feel the truth and importance of the subject, and impartially apply it to our own situation. These our supplications we present unto thee with filial boldness as the votaries

tares of thy son Jesus, and address thee farther, trusting in his promises, as he vouchsafed to teach us. Our father, &c.'

M. Zollikofer's remarks on Public Diversions prove him to be a man whose genuine piety is not debased by the smallest portion of puritanical austerity. While he endeavours to guard his hearers against vicious excess in the pursuit of amusements, he assures them that he is actuated by no principle of moroseness. 'You know,' he says, 'that I am no enemy to mirth and pleasure, that I interdict you no kind of diversion, so long as it is innocent and harmless; and am by no means desirous of raising you to an imaginary perfection, of which the nature of man is not capable in its present state. And how could I do so without forgetting what the human creature is, and what spirit prevails in the Christian doctrine?' It is observed, moreover, that the spirit of Christianity is a spirit of liberty and good humour; and in the introductory prayer, he rightly discriminates between the use and abuse of the pleasures of the world. We transcribe a part of it:

'O God, who art our kind and gracious father, readily dost thou grant mankind thy children every harmless and innocent satisfaction. Thou even givest them the fullness of pleasures! Sensual pleasures, intellectual pleasures; domestic and social pleasures; pleasures of the present and of the future life: all pleasure comes from thee, it is thy special boon! Thou makest us susceptible of it, thou openest to us the sources, thou suppliest us with the means and the faculties for the enjoyment of it. Thanks and praise be to thee, the dispenser of joy, for every agreeable and delightful emotion that enters our heart—Who would not think on thee with cordial satisfaction, with alacrity lift up his mind and his heart to thee! Who would not love thee, the kind and bountiful parent of man! Who not make it his most earnest wish to please thee and to do thy will!—Oh may then every joy thou grantest us lead us to thee by rendering us more attentive and zealous in the discharge of our duty! Then should we look continually at thee, never withdraw from thee, never exceed the bounds of moderation. Then would our amusements be perfectly innocent and well-pleasing unto thee. Then would not sin so frequently turn our entertainments into folly, nor remorse and reproaches embitter their enjoyment. Ah Lord have patience with us, thy frail and feeble children!'

We need scarcely repeat our favourable opinion of the merit of M. Zollikofer as a divine, nor of Mr. Tooke as a translator. If the preacher be occasionally diffuse, his mind is stored with thought, and his heart is warm in the cause of religion and virtue. He is no common-place declaimer; and if we do not adopt all his sentiments, we cannot help feeling his piety, and loving him for his sincerity and benevolence. His discourses, considered as practical essays, deserve our warm recommendation.

ART.

ART. VIII. *Coins of the Seleucide, Kings of Syria*; from the Establishment of their Reign under Seleucus Nicator, to the Determination of it under Antiochus Asiaticus. With historical Memoirs of each Reign. Illustrated with twenty-four Plates of Coins, from the Cabinet of the late Matthew Duane, F. R. and A. S., engraved by F. Bartolozzi. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nichols, Payne, &c.

It is well known that the late Mr. Duane had been very assiduous in collecting antient coins; and particularly in forming a series of some of the finest of those which issued from the mints of the Syrian and Macedonian kings. These coins passed from the hands of their collector into those of Dr. Hunter, constituting a part of his Museum, and are ultimately destined to occupy a place in the cabinet of the University of Glasgow. While Mr. Duane possessed this numismatic treasure, he employed the celebrated Bartolozzi \* in engraving them; with an intention, perhaps of publishing the plates, accompanied by observations on them, illustrative of the history of the region and period to which they refer. The editor of the present volume, who, for 'no inconsiderable price,' (120 guineas!) has now possession of the engravings, and has given plates of them to the public, observes that, had the original proprietor of them lived to execute his own design, no doubt can be entertained that he would have performed his task in a manner truly worthy of the subject; and that, 'under present circumstances, all that can be done is to accompany these fine plates with a short view of the reigns of the respective princes.'

As we have only scanty materials for the composition of a history of the Syrian Kings, and some dissonance appearing in the accounts, it is very properly conjectured by (Mr. Gough) the editor, that 'an exhibition of these coins will be not only pleasing but instructive by shewing what credit is due to his-

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\* We copy with regret the note relative to this artist: 'Mr. Bartolozzi was driven by adverse circumstances, at a very advanced period of his life, to seek that comfort and independence on a foreign shore, which his imprudence in suffering himself to be imposed on by his countrymen, who have taken advantage of his easy temper and carelessness about his affairs, have deprived him of the hope of enjoying here. His reception in Portugal, in November 1802, was most flattering. He has consented to pass the remainder of his life there on what in this country would be deemed a very moderate pension. A national academy of arts is to be established at Lisbon, under his superintendence, with two pupils from this country, and a handsome suite of apartments, and a salary of near two hundred pounds per annum.'

torians, and by filling up the deficiencies of succeeding later writers.\*

\* Petavius (continues the editor) observes, that it is for the interest of sacred as well as profane history, that we should have an exact knowledge of the order and succession of those kings, who after Alexander the Great reigned in Syria, exhibiting the events of their reigns in chronological order, and their connexion with the story of the Maccabees. This last advantage is not a little improved by the frequent dates on their coins, which ascertain the exact series and succession, the number of years of their reigns, or the beginning or end of them, which had been left undetermined or imperfect in ancient historians and annalists: and thus the construction of the famous æra of the Seleucidæ may be settled. Various circumstances are recorded on these coins, the names of the several kings, and their distinctions from each other: antient historians having frequently omitted their surnames and titles, which serve not a little to illustrate their history; some of their actions, scarcely known from other means, but from hence more fully cleared up; names and situations of celebrated cities of Syria, Phœnicia, and Palestine, where they were struck: æræ, religious rites, deities, dignities, privileges, as that of being held *sacred, inviolable, independent*, ΙΕΡΑΣ, ΑΣΥΤΟΥ, ΑΥΤΟΝΟΜΟΥ, all which particulars are frequently expressed on these coins.\*

From Froelich, (who cites in his work the Samaritan coins of the Maccabean princes, which is a class omitted by Mr. Duane,) is copied, with brief explanations, the table of the *monograms* to be found on the coins represented in these plates; and in opposition to Pinkerton, who says that "the coins of kings very seldom have contractions," it is remarked that 'more of the coins here exhibited have contractions than are without them.'

The first of these plates contains the coins of Seleucus I. called Nicator, the founder of the Syro-Macedonian empire, who had the figure of an anchor impressed on his coins; owing, as Appian says, to his having found a small anchor under a stone against which he stumbled in his march to Babylon. Another reason is assigned by others: but whatever was the origin of the anchor the Seleucidæ after him always used it on their seals. The plates then continue in series, through the reigns of the other monarchs, to that of Antiochus IV., king of Commagene; of whom this short account is subjoined:

\* This little fertile country, situate on the borders of Syria and Cilicia, had for its capital, in its centre, the fortified city of Samosata. It was subject to the king of Syria, and had been left to Antiochus the Great, by the treaty with the Romans, after the battle of Magnesia, whence, it is probable, that it was seized by some of the princes of the Seleucian family, during their intestine wars; for we find no mention of a king of Commagene till the time of Pompey, by whom Selenia, a castle in Mesopotamia, was added to it; and the names of those who  
afterwards

afterwards reigned there are entirely Syrian. The kingdom subsisted from the time of Pompey the Great to Vespasian.

'The first is Antiochus, who, opposing Pompey as he entered Syria after the defeat of Tigranes, was repulsed by him; but afterwards restored and assisted Pompey in his war with Cæsar.

'Antiochus II. was put to death by order of Augustus, for having caused an ambassador of his brother Mithridates to be assassinated. Mithridates was excluded from the succession, and another person of that name, not related to that family, set up by Augustus, who after his death, suffered Antiochus III. son of Antiochus II. to succeed.

'Antiochus III. died in the reign of Tiberius, and Commagene became a Roman province. Caligula restored it to Antiochus IV. son of Antiochus III. and added to it the maritime parts of Cilicia. He assisted Vespasian against Vitellius; and was with Titus at the siege of Jerusalem; but being suspected of holding a correspondence with the Parthians, he was banished to Lacedæmon, and afterwards suffered to lead a private life at Rome. He left two sons, Antiochus and Callinicus, and a daughter Iotape. Antiochus IV. surnamed Epiphanes, served under Otho and Vespasian at the siege of Jerusalem. But Vespasian, having reduced Commagene to a Roman province, would not allow any of the sons of Antiochus to succeed him.'

We cannot think that Mr. Gough has displayed great penetration and accuracy, in his explanations and illustrations of the coins exhibited in the plates. To mention a few instances.

Plate I. fig. 4. 'The king's head in a lion's skin:' this is an evident mistake, for the head on the coin is that of Hercules adorned with the spoils of the lion. In the four following, the head of Hercules is also positively assigned to the king; though at p. 18. it is doubted whether the heads so habited were those of the monarch.

Fig. 9. 'Old bearded head, laureate.' This might be understood by the uninitiated to signify an old bearded head of a poet laureate; whereas it is the head of Jupiter bearded and laureated, with no other marks of old age than its beard. On the reverse of this coin, the Elephants are made five, while Froëlich makes them only four.

Fig. 11, 12, 13. 'Heads laureate without beard.' These are all heads of Apollo laureated; — *Apollinis sine barbâ*.

Fig. 14. 'Old head laureate with a beard, perhaps of Hercules.' This bearded and laureated head belongs to the coins of Pergamus, as is evident by the inscription ΓΑΜΗΝΟΝ on the reverse. Dr. Combe does not call it Hercules; see Plate of Cities 45. fig. 12. where the whole legend, ΠΕΓΓΑΜΗΝΟΝ, is perfect. Does not the eagle standing on the thunderbolt in the reverse indicate the head to be that of Jupiter? This coin is probably not of Seleucus the king, but of a magistrate of Pergamus, for it wants *ΓΑΣΙΔΕΥΣ*.

Plate II. fig. 2. 'Pallas armed as before.—Before her the anchor erect, and on each side of the handle the badges of the Dioscuri.' The pilei or badges of the Dioscuri are not on this coin. In Plate III. fig. 14. however, they occur.

P. 31. 'Apollo with a dart reclining on a tripod.' This is obscure. It should be Apollo reclining on a tripod, with a dart in his right hand. Mr. G. is not uniform in his descriptions of the same coins. At plate XXII. fig. 3. the description is as we have given it.

Plate III. fig. 1. 'Apollo sitting on a rock.' It should be, Apollo sitting on the *cortina*.

In Plate III. fig. 5. Mr. G. subjects himself to the risk of confounding the type with the countermark. Here the anchor, or countermark, which signifies that this coin was current elsewhere, is in black, while the type is white. See also fig. 3. and fig. 19.—Fig. 16. 'A laureate head with a wing over the ear;' it has only a fillet.

Plate IV. fig. 4, 5, 6, 7. exhibit Seleucus III. with the type of Antiochus II. The true Seleucus III. is in Plate III. fig. 22. with a type different from Antiochus II. father of Seleucus II. and his own; which is more likely to be that of Seleucus III. than Seleucus II., since Seleucus III. reigned but two years, and Seleucus II. reigned twenty; whence it is improbable that, in so short a reign, the son should strike four coins with the same type, and not differing from those of his father and grandfather.

Plate VIII. fig. 7. the legend is ANTIOXEON TON EPIKAAAIPOHN. Mr. G. inserts ΠΡΟΣ: but this is not justified.

Προΐδων τροπᾶιος is by Mr. G. elegantly translated at p. 91. 'Neptune the Turner,' as if he had been a workman in wood or ivory. *Tropæus* Jupiter, and *Tropæan* Juno, mean in Greek Jupiter and Juno; and here, Neptune, because on his aid the battle turned.

We know not whether sufficient pains were taken by Mr. Duane to guard against mistakes: but we wish that Mr. G. had compared his plates with the coins themselves in Dr. Hunter's collection; since it easily might have happened that, in the hurry of professional engagements, when Bartolozzi called on him, Mr. Duane may suffer the artist to take with him some that did not belong to the plate which he was engraving; and this we suspect to have been the case in a variety of instances.

It is also to be lamented that Mr. G. did not procure somebody to assist him in publishing these plates, who had more knowledge of the handling than he seems to possess; as then he would not have subjected himself to the mistake of confounding

founding the type with the countermark, or *vice versa* : nor have been so indiscreet as to carp at a great improvement in the numismatic science, viz. the weight of coins, because he could not procure the originals with as much facility as he got possession of the plates. Mr. G. is *at home* on a tomb-plate : but

“ *Que diable alloit il faire dans ce galere là ?* ”

The Appendix contains, among other curiosities, an account of the stone of Rosetta, obtained from the French in our conquest of Egypt, and in June 1803 deposited with the other Egyptian Monuments in the court of the British Museum. The triple inscription on this stone does not indeed strictly belong to the Seleucidæ : but the prince who is the subject of it was so connected with Antiochus IV. or Epiphanes, that it is not improperly annexed to this work. A copy is given of the Greek inscription in modern characters, and a translation is subjoined. We shall not discuss its accuracy : but we must observe that it is extremely to be regretted that the stone containing it had not descended un mutilated : since, as the inscription was given *εἰς τοὺς καὶ ἐγγύωτοις καὶ ἑλληνικοῖς γραμμασιν*, in the sacred or hieroglyphic, in the native, and in the Greek characters, it would have aided us more than any other monument, had it been perfect, to decypher the hitherto inexplicable hieroglyphics of the Egyptians.

ART. IX. *A Narrative of Events that have lately taken place in Ireland, among the Society called Quakers ; with corresponding Documents, and occasional Observations.* 8vo. pp. 300. 5s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

ART. X. *A Memoir of the Proceedings of the Society called Quakers, belonging to the Monthly Meeting of Hardshaw, in Lancashire, in the Case of the Author of a Publication entitled, “A Narrative of Events which have lately taken place in Ireland,” &c.* By William Rathbone. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

**T**ANTÆNE animis cœlestibus ira ? Could we expect to find such a temper and spirit existing among the people called Quakers, as the facts stated in these publications too strongly indicate ! To this Society, we have been in the habit of looking with peculiar respect, as to a church, in which the primitive simplicity of the Gospel prevailed ; which cherished brotherly love without bigotry ; and which, in the true spirit of Christian liberty, exhibited a sacred regard for truth without even the semblance of intolerance and persecution. If, however, we are to believe these statements (and how can we

refuse them our credence ?) the Quaker Church has displayed some of the worst features of other churches ; for it has exercised a degree of spiritual tyranny over its members, which we could not imagine to have existed in a body that disclaims a priesthood, and every thing indicating "dominion over Faith ;" and which, without creeds and sacraments, professes to confine its solicitude to the promotion of benevolence and the religion of the heart. A complete schism, indeed, has manifested itself even among modern Quakers ; and their synods and elders, in endeavouring to suppress it, seem to have been more liberal of their anathemas than Christian charity and forbearance will warrant. In all religious communities, we are persuaded, connivance is preferable to intolerance ; gentle and winning are more eligible than rigid and compulsory methods ;

*" Et errat longè, nostrâ quidem sententiâ,  
Qui imperium credat gravius esse aut stabilius  
Vi quod fit, quam illud quod amicitia jungitur."*

Since these peculiar people meet with cordial toleration from the society at large, in the profession of tenets and in the adherence to observances that depart more widely from the laws of the state than those of any other body of Dissenters, are they not required to shew forbearance towards the individuals of their own communion ? Is it for them who annually record and circulate among themselves all instances of the compulsory payment of tythes, as acts of persecution ;—who not only refuse to bear any part in the defence of the state, but who take active measures against those of their body who indirectly administer to security against foreign foes ; is it for such persons to oppress those who differ from them ? Allowed thus essentially to depart from the creed and usages of the community which not only tolerates, but which cherishes and protects them, is it not incumbent on them to be patient and forbearing towards their brethren ? Persecution, by whomsoever practised, is detestable : but in what instance can it so much excite our disgust, as when exercised by those who by way of eminence appropriate to themselves the designation of *friends* ?

If every lover of virtue and good conduct has been accustomed to regard this sect with great satisfaction, it was because it had in society at large the effect ascribed to religious orders at the time of their first institution ; its genuine members were so many examples of unfeigned piety, of honest industry, and simple manners : they formed as it were the sweeteners and of purifiers of the body politic ; and the fine expression of our Saviour might be applied to them, "*they were the salt of the earth.*" Their estimation and respectability arose out of the practice of religion

religion and virtue : this was their province ; and hence has proceeded their excellence. It should be their policy to keep as much aloof from spiritual, as it is their practice to abstain from physical polemics. Their community is not the field for the able controversialist, the subtle disputant, or the acute reasoner ; their polity excludes the learning which this career requires ; and the spirit which animates and supports their body is adverse to this sort of prowess. As to those who are carried away by this vulgar ambition, let them yield to their hapless destiny ; let them be buffeted by the storms, and tossed by the waves of ordinary human life : but let them not sacrilegiously disturb the peace of a brotherhood, whose bond of union is a wise and sublime self-denial, the last lesson taught by religion, by philosophy, and by experience, which until we learn, we cannot be called wise. We recommend it to the one party to desist from rigorous proceedings ; and we equally urge it on the other to abandon speculative innovations. Let them leave these matters to other denominations ; and let them feel that a more elevated, though in appearance a humbler part, is assigned to them.

An invariable tenet of the professors of this religion has been, that the spirit which dictated the sacred scriptures instructs and guides the faithful of all times, in the same manner, and in as high a degree, as it influenced the authors of those holy writings ; and it has never been controverted among them, that this inward light is superior to that which can be derived from the divine records. On these points, both the advocates of the antient faith and the reformers are agreed. Some modern Doctors of the Quaker Church, however, as well male as female, have not been contented to maintain the superiority of the inward light over that which is supplied by the scriptures, in which they are supported by the fathers of the same Church, Barclay, Pennington, &c. : but they venture to contemplate a discordance between them, and presume on the authority of the former to judge of, condemn, and reject the latter. One of the female Divines confidently maintains that no relation in the Old Testament, which represents the Deity as acting inconsistently with his moral perfections, according to inward light, is to be regarded as a part of revelation ; and on this principle, she rejects from the canon of scripture the accounts of the extirpation of the Canaanites. The same fair theologian has not had it shewn to her by the infallible internal monitor, that any miracles have been performed ; she does not controvert them, but only states that she has had no revelation concerning them. As far as we can collect, the antient Doctors, while they magnified the inward light, did not directly disparage the holy

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scriptures ;

scriptures; and by the superiority which they asserted for the former, we conceive they meant that it more forcibly struck the apprehension, and more effectually influenced the mind and conduct. This, however, is merely our conjecture; and we cannot find that either the antients or the moderns are explicit on this point. Though it be the very hinge on which the controversy turns, still the spiritual judges seem indisposed to give any explanation of the matter; and they only anathematize the rejection of any portion of our sacred code.

It will be clearly seen by the intelligent reader, that the step from the antient tenets to the new doctrines is not a very long one; and that it may be no slight task to keep headstrong spirits within the accustomed limits. A dextrous polemic, having the superiority of the inward light conceded to him, will have much to say in favour of novel tenets; and it will not be for every one to confute him. We have no difficulty, therefore, in forming an idea of the perplexity under which the defenders of the antient faith labour. We would recommend it to the Fathers, when they next meet in council, in order to sit in judgment on the matters in controversy, to imitate the conduct of the more wise of the Popes; and though they will not view with partiality any examples from this quarter, they will recollect that *fas est ab hoste doceri*. Their holinesses, when they did not chuse to decide, enjoined silence on the parties. Let the venerable synod, then, issue a circular letter, in which it shall be shewn that controversies and speculative discussions are inconsistent with the fundamentals of Quakerism, and must, if continued, subvert the sect; and let it be enjoined each reformer, before he publishes, to weigh well the practical benefit that is likely to arise from the discussion which he is about to commence, to consider how it will affect the society, and to make a public and solemn affirmation that he is not actuated by any love of distinction, or any motive of vanity, but by the sole desire of doing good.

The dissensions in the Brotherhood are not confined to points of doctrine, but extend to matters of practice of the last importance, and affect an institution of not less consequence than that of marriage. The provisions of the marriage-act did not extend to the Quakers: but they established rules which were observed by their own body, and which were equally effectual with the enactments of the statute. Of late, these rules have been resisted, on the plea of conscience. This we consider as certainly no light affair. The society cannot be blamed for regarding extra-formal marriages as invalid: but how they justify the excommunication of the parties, we are at a loss to perceive.

perceive. Regarding marriage to be a civil compact, as they do, how can they vindicate proceeding against offenders by ecclesiastical pains? They do not however stop here; they are not satisfied with severing from their body the parties themselves, but they exclude from fellowship all who are present at the celebration of the wedding; and there have been instances of excommunicating six or eight persons of the best character for this sole offence. We seriously lament these dissensions; and we shall be glad to learn that, by wise councils, the exercise of Christian forbearance, and a spirit of charity, they will be speedily healed.

The account of the proceedings of which we have been speaking, as given in the *Narrative of Events*, appears very fair and dispassionate; it displays at once a Christian and a philosophical spirit; and we are happy to perceive that the views of the intelligent author coincide in a great degree with our own. Most readers will meet in this volume with considerable information that is new to them, in regard to the polity, the religious tenets, and the maxims of this quiet and peaceable sect. The author of it proves to be Mr. Rathbone, the writer also of the subsequent *Memoir*. He was one of the members of this church, but has been recently disowned by it; yet he seems to be a most serious inquirer after truth, to be thoroughly imbued with the genuine principles of religious liberty, and to offer advice which is of great importance in the present embarrassed state of the Quaker system. We are truly obliged to him for affording us so clear a view of its constitution, discipline, and rules, which have hitherto been kept secret; and we hesitate not to say that this Society would have acted more consistently with its avowed principles of brotherly love, and respect for the right of private judgment in the sincerely conscientious, if, instead of being angry with him for the explicit declaration and even publication of his sentiments, it had proceeded to consider 'the connection of disownment with persecution,' and the impolicy of multiplying duties beyond the limits which God and nature have prescribed. Since the present Elders are rigid sticklers for old forms, and are as fearful of innovation as the heads of any establishment; and since the excluded members cannot be persuaded to coalesce with any existing Christian body; we see no alternative left but the formation of a new Quaker church, in which that liberty of conscience, the violation of which they lament, shall be less restrained; in which the ceremony of marriage, shall be less fettered; and in which no regulations shall be admitted beyond what the strict necessity of the cases shall re-

quire\*. We do not recommend Schism : but the excommunicated members ought not to be excluded from the benefit of social worship in their own way.

The monthly-meeting at Hardshaw laments, as well it may, that Mr. Rathbone's *Narrative of Events, &c.* tended to lower the Society in the eyes of the world by exposing its weakness : but if such has been its harsh and inconsistent conduct, it ought not to complain of exposure. It was generous in Mr. Rathbone, at the risk of his own expulsion, to publish the case of the excommunicated members, for the consideration of the nation at large ; since, if they were deprived of the comfort and advantages of the religious sect to which they had belonged from their birth, the public had a right to inquire into the reason of their disgrace among the members of their own communion†. To enjoin secrecy in such cases is not honourable. Justice to all parties demanded an open statement of *facts* ; and the *reflections* which Mr. R. has subjoined are of so truly temperate and judicious a nature, that both parties might derive benefit from them. We require no other evidence of the acrimonious leaven which has insinuated itself into the deliberations of the Society of Friends, than the expulsion of such a man, so reasonable, so candid, and so well informed, as Mr. R. appears to be. He ably vindicates himself against the rigorous proceedings of the Hardshaw Meeting, and accuses the Society at large of no longer "standing fast in the Liberty wherewith Christ has made them free." Of the general truth and pre-eminent value of the Scriptures, he acknowledges his sincere conviction, though he does not reply to the charge which accuses him of believing ‡ that they contain some

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\* The present dissention respecting Marriage might occasion some questions on the *legality* of some of their marriages.

† The following testimony is given in behalf of 60 excluded members in Ireland :

‘ Whatever supposed delinquency may have been imputed to these persons, in other respects, they never, (so far as my information extends) swerved from their firm belief in the doctrine of inward and immediate revelation ; nor is there a single instance on record of immoral conduct being charged by the Society upon any one of these persons, as the ground of their disownment. They dissociated on account of their conscientious dissent from much of the then existing ministry and conduct of the discipline, and from the recent decisions of the national yearly meeting. These had, in their opinion, a direct tendency to abridge liberty of conscience, and to enforce conformity and uniformity with respect to unessential tenets and practices, to an extent beyond that to which the discipline had before been carried.’

important errors.' All liberal readers will pronounce that Mr. R. has triumphed; and it is for his opponents to rebut the charge of a departure from the obvious dictates of equity, candour, and benevolence.

Another tract on this controversy will be noticed in the *Catalogue* part of this Review; and an additional volume has just appeared, which we have not yet had time to peruse.

ART. XI. *North Wales; including its Scenery, Antiquities, Customs, and some Sketches of its Natural History*; delineated from two Excursions through all the interesting Parts of that Country, during the Summers of 1798 and 1801. By the Rev. W. Bingley, A.M., Fellow of the Linnean Society, and late of Peter-house, Cambridge. Illustrated with a Map, Frontispieces, and Music. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1804.

THE growing predilection for Welsh tours gives to publications like the present a value beyond their literary estimate, communicates to them a higher importance, and raises them to the rank of practical performances. Considered in this point of view, the Principality has been fortunate, and the curious or the fashionable visitant can be at no loss for guides; since persons of excellent taste and considerable information have not disdained the useful office of directing the steps of the future traveller, and of pointing out the objects which challenge his attention. In this class, with respect to South Wales, Mr. Malkin bears the palm\*; and, with regard to North Wales, Mr. Bingley, though a writer of a different class and character, claims to be the best companion which the English visitor can adopt. If the Welsh are prepared coolly to contemplate the extinction of their venerable dialect and their antient manners,—if they deem the increase of wealth, and a more entire incorporation and a more complete identity with their luxurious fellow-subjects, an adequate compensation for such a change,—they will own themselves obliged to the above named Gentlemen, who have taken so much pains to facilitate and render inviting our excursions into their country. That these peregrinations should be attractive to persons of fortune and leisure, can be no matter of wonder. They might be described as a kind of *foreign* travel which may be performed *at home*; for without crossing the water, we are introduced to a country presenting singular aspects, a rich variety of scenery, and a state of society dissimilar from our own; inhabited by a people altogether distinct from ourselves, speaking a different language, and distin-

\* See Rev. Vol. xlv. N. S. p. 363. and xlvii. p. 41.

guished by peculiar qualities, habits, and manners;—a people interesting as a remnant of the antient population of the West of Europe, whose very barbarism was qualified by a refined and artificial superstition; the number and excellence of whose bards shew a more liberal distribution of creative talents than falls to the lot of most other nations; and who, to this day, are characterized by loyalty, bravery, and a proud spirit of independence.

Mr. Bingley commenced his tour at Chester, of which place he gives a very interesting account; stating, with great conciseness, whatever distinguishes it, as well politically as topographically.

A view of Downing, near Holywell, the residence of the late Mr. Pennant, on the road from Holywell to St. Asaph, calls from Mr. B. a tribute to its departed owner, which he thus concludes:

‘In the writings of Mr. Pennant, we are not to look for any of those brilliant effusions of genius that mark the pen of some of the modern naturalists and travellers. But if he did not possess their fire, he had the more valuable requisites of untarnished principle, and a scrupulous adherence to truth. Perseverance, industry, and correctness, are their leading characteristics. His reading was extensive, particularly in the zoological branches of natural history. He possessed a retentive memory, and a considerable rapidity of composition, his works being generally printed, with little or no correction, as they flowed from the pen.

‘As to his private character; he was religious without bigotry, and, from principles the most pure and disinterested, firmly attached to the established church. He was a steady friend to our excellent constitution; and when the spirit of democracy with which the mania of a neighbouring country appeared desirous of overwhelming our kingdom, was spreading abroad, he resisted its efforts with all his might. In times of scarcity, he materially alleviated the distresses of the neighbouring poor by the importation of grain. If he had foibles, let them be buried in his grave, and let the first who is without, draw them thence to his dispraise. To sum up the general character of Mr. Pennant in few words, he was a man of upright conduct and the most unshaken integrity, uniting to a good head that valuable counterpart so often wanting, an excellent heart.’

The old adage, *de mortuis, &c.* sanctions the sentiment here expressed by Mr. Bingley: but, in our opinion, this is to be regarded as a rule of good breeding which was never intended to controul the conduct of the historian. If the biographer's pencil be assumed, no line of character should be omitted; truth requires, and the public have a right and an interest, that the sketch should be faithful.—We may here observe that the author never passes the birth-place of any distinguished character, without paying the same homage to his memory as in the

the present instance ; and it is but justice to add that these memoranda are composed with neatness, as well as with great fairness and impartiality. They much enhance the value of the work.

We must not omit the following sketch, which occurs in the author's account of St. Asaph :

'The tower of the cathedral commands a most extensive prospect of the vale of Clwyd, in every direction ; and it is almost the only situation that I could find for seeing it to advantage. The river Clwyd, from which the vale takes its name, is a diminutive stream that meanders along its bottom, scarcely three yards over in the widest part. Its banks are low, and after sudden rains it is subject to the most dreadful overflowings, the torrent at these times frequently sweeping along with it even the very soil of the land it passes over. From this circumstance it is that much of the land near its banks is let at very low rents. This vale is perhaps the most extensive of any in the kingdom, being near twenty-four miles in length, and about seven in width ; containing the three considerable towns of St. Asaph, Denbigh and Ruthin ; and, though it is impossible to exhibit a more beautiful scene of fertility, yet, from its great width and its want of water, I believe the painter will prefer to it many of the deep and picturesque glens of Caernarvonshire and Merionethshire.'

In the above vale stands Rhyddlan, now an insignificant village, which was created a free borough by Edward I., and in which was passed the famous statute of Wales.

From the section on Conway river, we extract an account of a natural production, which is not generally known to belong to our island :

'This river was celebrated in former times as a pearl-fishery ; and pearls have been found here at different intervals ever since the Roman conquest. It was to obtain these that Suetonius alleges as one of the principal motives for his invasion of our island ; but there is reason to suppose that he was in a great measure disappointed in his hopes, both with respect to their size and quantity. The shell in which they are found is called the Pearl Muscle, and is the *Mya margaritifera* of Linnæus. It is peculiar to stoney and rapid rivers, burying itself with its open end downwards in the sand ; but it is not often found here at present. The pearl is a calculus, or morbid concretion, supposed to be produced by some disease, and is at times found even in the common oyster and muscle. It is sometimes within the body of the animal, and sometimes on the inside of the shell ; and one muscle frequently contains more than a single pearl. The shells that bear the best pearls are not smooth and equal like the rest, but are crooked and wrinkled ; and the larger the pearls are the greater is their deformity. Linnæus informed Mr. Pennant that he had discovered the art of causing the pearls to form : he however refused to communicate it, and it is supposed to have died with him. When there are pearls in the shell, the animals, on being squeezed, will eject them, and they even sometimes spontaneously cast them on the sand of the river. It is reported

reported in the country that Sir Richard Wynne of Gwydir presented the queen of Charles II. with a pearl from the river Conwy which was afterwards placed in the regal crown. About twenty-five years ago the late Sir Robert Vaughan went to court with a button and loop in his hat set with pearls from the Conwy. An Irish pearl is mentioned by Sir Robert Redding in the Philosophical Transactions, as weighing thirty-six carrats, and valued at forty pounds. The present lady Newborough has a good collection of the Conwy pearls, and she purchases all the best that are now to be found.—The fish of the pearl muscle is not eaten, being extremely bad and unpalatable.

The author bestows high praise on the views which present themselves in Conway vale, and along the route from that place to Bangor; which city, and the adjoining seat of Lord Penrhyn, seem very much to interest him. At Landyngai church, near Bangor, Mr. B. saw the monument of Archbishop Williams, so well known in our history, and who was a native of Conway; which induces him to add a dispassionate and faithful account of this last of our Statesmen-Prelates.

We now meet with a passage which, as descriptive of some very singular religionists, the pure and exclusive growth of a Welsh soil, is intitled to a place in our pages. If the philosopher and the statesman cannot view them with complacency, it is perhaps the antiquary who has most reason to be displeased with them; inasmuch as they have wrought a change in the national character and features, have converted a lively merry race into gloomy fanatics, and have occasioned games, which promoted health and activity, and all the cheerful amusements, even the love of music, to give way to a rage for religious austerities. This circumstance, more than intercourse with England and the progress of society, has invaded the ancient manners and habits of this interesting people. Never did fanaticism obtain a soil more congenial to it, and never did it reap a richer harvest.

‘ Whilst I was at Caernarvon, I was induced from motives of curiosity, more than once to attend the chapel of a singular branch of calvinistical methodists, who, from certain enthusiastical extravagancies which they exhibit in their religious meetings, are denominated *Jumpers*. Their service here is in the Welsh language, and, as among other methodists, commences and concludes with a prayer. It is not till the last hymn is sung that any uncommon symptoms are exhibited. The tune consists only of a single strain, and the hymn, having but one verse, this verse is, in consequence, repeated over and over, sometimes for half an hour, and sometimes, if their spirit of enthusiasm is much excited, for upwards of an hour. With this begin their motions. It is sung once or twice over without any apparent effect. The first motion to be observed is that of the upper parts of their body from right to left. They then raise their hands, and often strike one hand violently against the other. Such is the effect produced

duced even on strangers, that I confess whenever I have been among them at these times, my intellects became greatly confused: the noise of their groaning and singing, or often times rather bellowing, the clapping of their hands, the beating of their feet against the ground, the excessive heat of the place, and the various motions on all sides of me, almost stupified my senses. The less enthusiastic move off soon after the hymn is begun: among these, every time I attended them, I observed the preacher to make one; he always threw a silk handkerchief over his head, and, descending from the pulpit, left his congregation to jump by themselves. At intervals the word "*gogoniant*" (praise or glory!) is frequently to be heard. The conclusion of this extravagance, which bears much more the appearance of heathen orgies, than of the rational spirit of Christian devotion, has been described by one of their own countrymen with more justice than I am able to give to it. "The phrensy (he says) so far spreads, that to any observation made to them, they seem altogether insensible. Men and women indiscriminately, cry and laugh, jump and sing, with the wildest extravagance imaginable. That their dress becomes deranged, or the hair dishevelled, is no longer an object of attention. And their raptures continue, till, spent with fatigue of mind and body, the women are frequently carried out in a state of apparent insensibility. In these scenes, indeed, the youthful part of the congregation are principally concerned, the more elderly generally contenting themselves in admiring, with devout gratitude, what they deem the operations of the spirit." Their exertions on these occasions are so violent, that were they often repeated in the week, the health of the people must be materially affected. When they leave the place, they often seem so much exhausted, as scarcely to be able to support the weight of their bodies; and the hardest labour they could be employed in would not so much waste the animal spirits, or weary their limbs, as an hour spent in this religious frenzy.

Caernarvon appears to be more connected than any other in the North Wales tour, with interesting perambulations. In one of these, some incidents occurred, which, as shewing the state of society, deserve to be quoted:

'There are two cottages in this village where the wearied traveller may take such poor refreshments as the place affords. One of these belonged, about two years ago to John Close, a grey-headed old man, who was born and brought up in the north of Yorkshire. He had occasion to come into Wales with some cattle in his younger days, and preferring this to his Yorkshire home, he resided here the rest of his life. His son now keeps the house.—The other is kept by the parish clerk, who may be employed as a guide over any part of the adjacent country. I found him well acquainted with the mountains, and a much more intelligent man than guides in general are. He does not speak English well, but his civility and attention are a sufficient compensation for this defect.—Neither of these places affords a bed, nor any thing eatable better than bread and butter, or cheese, and perhaps, eggs and bacon.

'The

'The first time that I came to Llanberis, being somewhat fatigued with traversing the adjacent mountains, I went to the former of these houses to rest myself and obtain some refreshment. It was just at the dinner hour, and a scene was exhibited altogether novel to me. At one table were seated the family of the house, consisting of the old host, his wife and their son and daughter, eating their bread and milk, the common food of the labouring people here: a large overgrown old sow was devouring her dinner, with considerable dissatisfaction on account of the short allowance, from a pail placed for her by the daughter in one corner; whilst I was eating my bread and butter, with an appetite steeled against niceties by the keenness of the mountain air, at a table covered with a dirty napkin, in the other corner. This scene, however, induced me always afterwards to bring with me refreshments from Caernarvon, and enjoy my dinner, in quiet, in the open air.'—

'I saw, and was introduced to the curate; he resided in a mean-looking cottage not far from the church, which seemed to consist of but few other rooms than a kitchen and bed-room, the latter of which served also for his study. When I entered the room he was engaged over an old folio volume of sermons. His dress was somewhat singular; he had on a blue coat that long had been worn threadbare, and in various places exhibited marks of the industry of his wife, a pair of antique corderoy breeches, and a black waistcoat, and round his head was tied a blue handkerchief. His library might have been the very same that Hurdia has described in the *Village Curate*.

'Yon half a dozen shelves support, vast weight,  
The curate's library. There marshalled stand,  
Sages and heroes, modern and antique:  
He, their commander, like the vanquished fiend,  
Out-cast of heaven, oft through their armed files,  
Darts an experienced eye, and feels his heart  
Distend with pride, to be their only chief:  
Yet needs he not the tedious muster-roll,  
The title page of each well known, its name,  
And character.

'From the exterior of the cottage, it seemed but the habitation of misery; but the smiles of the good man were such as would render even misery cheerful. His salary was about forty pounds, on which, with his little farm, he contrived to support himself and his family, and with this slender pittance he seemed perfectly contented and comfortable. His wife was absent, but from a wheel which I observed in the room, I conjectured, and was afterwards informed, that her time was principally employed in spinning wool. The account I had from the parishioners of the character of this man was, that he was respected and beloved by all, and that his whole time and attention were occupied in doing such good to his fellow creatures as his very slender circumstances would allow.

'I venerate the man whose heart is warm,  
Whose hands are pure, whose doctrine, and whose life  
Coincident,

Coincident, exhibit lucid proof  
 That he is honest in the sacred cause.  
 To such I render more than mere respect,  
 Whose actions shew that they respect themselves.

\* This person, after sustaining a severe illness with the utmost resignation and fortitude, died in the beginning of the year 1801, leaving a widow and one daughter to survive him.\*

In the following description of an Evening-scene at Llanberis, the author's pencil appears to advantage:

' I left my hospitable friends, and strolled to the end of the lake. Scarcely a breath of air was to be felt. A white fog was extended, in long dense streaks, low down in the vale. The evening clouds appeared across the end of the lakes, tinged with various hues of red and orange, from the refracted rays of the departing sun. These were reflected in full splendour along the water. The rocks reflected various shades of purple, as the prominences were presented to the eye, or as the heath or verdure most prevailed. These colours after a while became one mass of dark greenish blue. The clouds lost their splendour; and the pool began to darken from the shades of the mountains. Scattered clouds now settled on various parts of the rocks, their light colours singularly contrasting with the sombre mountain tints. On looking from the pool towards the village, I was just able to distinguish it in the gloom, its place being marked by the smoke of the peat fires, rising a few yards perpendicularly from the chimnies, and then spreading into a cloud, and hovering directly over it. The rocks and precipices softened by degrees in an uniform mass of shade. The general features now became entirely lost, and only the upper outline was distinguishable in the obscurity. The evening fogs soon after came on, and in a short time so enveloped the whole scene, that not a single former trace was visible.'

The claim made by Anglesea to the birth of Dafydd ap Gwilym occasions Mr. B. to sketch the life of the Welsh Anacreon. To some particulars of this extraordinary man, our readers are not strangers. Endowed with a fine genius, which he very considerably cultivated, a resident of Wales in the 14th century, professing libertinism not less openly than the amatory poets of Greece and Rome, and in pouring out his shafts against the superstition of the times, scarcely sparing religion itself, he points to a state of society among the sequestered Welsh, of which his works, and the consideration in which he was held, are almost the sole evidence. Mr. B. relates a pleasing anecdote with respect to him:

' Between Dafydd ap Gwilym and Gryffydd Grôg, an Anglesea bard, a man of considerable genius and learning, there was a rivalry for fame, which produced many masterly compositions on each side. This contention had been carried on for a long time, and, with great animosity, when a Welshman of the name of Bola Bauol offered  
 a wager,

a wager, which was immediately accepted, that he would effect their reconciliation. He shortly afterwards went into North Wales, and industriously circulated a report of the death of Dafydd ap Gwilym. This so much affected his rival, that, laying aside every other feeling, in the poignancy of his grief, he wrote an elegy bewailing the loss of his friend, in the most affectionate terms. Bola, having in the mean time contrived to circulate a story of the same nature in South Wales, of the death of Gryffydd Grŵg, was much pleased, on his return, to find that Dafydd had also written a pathetic elegy on his opponent. He thus succeeded according to his expectations, for, on discovering to each the real sentiments of the other, they forgave the frolic, and ever afterwards remained firm friends.'

Our present recollection of our own examination of this classical Welsh poet suggests to us no ground for qualifying the high praise bestowed by Mr. B. on the easy and flowing muse of the lover of Morfudd :

' His works possess harmony, invention, elegance, and perspicuity. The powers of his mind rose greatly superior to all the disadvantages of the period in which he lived. In harmony of versification, his works even now stand as a model of perfection, although at the time when he wrote, most of the laws of composition were in a state of fluctuation, and others were altogether unknown. It seems, indeed, very probable that some of his verses might form the idea for many rules which were afterwards settled. He had both feeling and judgment ; in his love-poems there is a peculiar softness and melody in all their variations ; and this, in a greater or less degree, may be traced through all his works, from the slightest efforts of his muse, to the most grand and sublime parts of his imagery.'

In the ensuing relation, we have another specimen of the powers of Mr. B.'s pencil. The scene is in the vicinity of Caernarvon :

' In my visit to the Nantlle Pools, I proceeded along the road from Caernarvon to Beddgelert, till I had passed Llyn Cwellyn, when taking a route westward, between Llyn Cader, and Llyn y Dywarchen, I entered a wild mountainous pass, that led me along a series of sheep tracts, into Nant Lle, *the Vale of Lle*. The mountains rose on each side to an immense height, those towards the north forming a long range of precipices, singularly marked by the innumerable gullies of the mountain storms. The whole scene was that of savage wildness, of nature in her most dreary attire. It is a narrow pass, encompassed by mountains uncultivated, destitute altogether of wood, and unsheltered on all sides from the fury of the tempests.—As I proceeded, the scene by degrees began to extend its limits, and the mountains to attain more varied and elegant forms. At length the two Nantlle Pools, called by the Welsh *Llyniau Nantlle*, and the whole range of the vale, with the gradually declining mountains, became visible nearly to the sea. The prospect was exceedingly beautiful ; and the number of trees in different parts, and particularly about the foreground, added greatly to the effect.—On  
turning

turning round; to look towards the road that I had left, now about two miles distant, I observed that Snowdon closed up the end of the pass, and terminated the view in that direction: its upper parts were, however, so enveloped in clouds, as to render them invisible.—I continued my route along a tolerable good horse-path, between hedgerows, among meadows and woodland, on the north side of the pools. The trees were chiefly old oaks, that had withstood the fury of near a hundred winters; the limbs shattered, covered with moss, and bared of leaves. Several of the small farmers' cottages among these trees presented, with the other objects around, scenes peculiarly picturesque. By an ancient over-shot mill, between the pools, I remarked a scene that exceeded all the rest. The mountain grandeur of the vale was broken by the wooded foreground; and the water of one of the lakes, from the rays of the sun, which shot obliquely upon it, glittered through the dark foliage of the trees. The mill, and its rude wooden aqueduct and wheel, with an adjacent cottage or two, overgrown with moss and lichens, and shattered in the walls and roofs, were the other component parts of the landscape. This was, however, by no means, the last of the elegancies of the vale; in almost every part of my walk, I had something to admire, some new object presented to me, that afforded sources both of reflection and delight. At some distance beyond the farthest lake, the road, which is here wide enough to admit carriages to the neighbouring slate quarries, led me to some little height above the vale. I again turned round to look along the vale in the direction I had come, and was surprised by a view so elegantly picturesque, that even my fancy had scarcely ever led me to imagine one equal to it. The dense clouds that had enveloped all the higher regions of Snowdon, were in a great measure driven away, and those that I now saw, floated below the pointed summit of the mountain, which was visible above. It bounded the end of the vale, and I never before saw this mountain in so much grandeur. A dusky haziness about it, threw it to appearance very distant, and added greatly to its effect in height. A gleam of sunshine, passing the valley by Llyn Cwellyn, that crossed by its foot, and softening upwards, formed a fine light in the middle of the scene. The steep black rocks of Mynydd Mawr, on the left, and the craggy summits of the elegant and varied range of the Drws y Coed mountains, on the right of the vale on whose side I stood, and appearing even still darker than usual, from the light on the mountain beyond them, formed a truly elegant middle distance. The expanse of the water of the two lakes, intersected by a narrow isthmus, appeared in the bosom of the vale. The rude trunks, and weather-beaten limbs of the old oaks around, not only added beauty to the foreground, but varied, by their intervention, the otherwise too uniform appearance of the meadows of the vale, and of some parts of the mountains' sides. This landscape is not exceeded in beauty by any in North Wales.

Adjacent to the same grand station, is the vale which is next depicted:

From the village of Ffestiniog we descended into Cwm Maentwrog, *The Vale of Maentwrog*, (improperly called by tourists the  
 REV. OCT. 1805. O vale

vale of Ffestiniog,) and wandered leisurely along, enjoying all the way the most sublime pleasure in contemplating the beauties of the scene before us. There are few vales in this country that afford such lovely prospects as this. Many of the high mountains bounding its sides are shaded with lofty oaks; and the silver Dwyryd, *Two Fords, serpentises* placidly and silently along the bottom, amidst the richest cultivation. The sea, at a distance, closes the view; and Traeth Bach, a wide arm of it, is seen to receive the Dwyryd, a little below Tanybwllch hall, which is situated on a rising ground, and embowered in woods, at the north west extremity of the vale. The little village of Maentwrog, from whence it takes its name, is seated nearly in the middle. The character of the vale of Ffestiniog is very different from that either of Llanberis or Nant Hwynan: the former is majestic, grand, and sublime; Nant Hwynan bears a middle character, its bottom is varied by insulated rocks, and clad with trees; this is simply elegant, and principally affords charms to the admirer of nature in her most chaste and delicate attire. The bottom is open, and cultivated from end to end, with trees scattered along the walls and hedge-rows. The thick woods on the mountains on the north side soften very beautifully what would be otherwise a bleak and dreary feature in the scene. "With the woman one loves, with the friend of one's heart, and a good study of books, (says lord Lyttleton to his friend Mr. Bower,) one might pass an age in this vale, and think it a day. If you have a mind to live long, and renew your youth, come with Mrs. Bower, and settle at Ffestiniog. Not long ago there died in that neighbourhood an honest Welsh farmer, who was 105 years of age. By his first wife he had *thirty* children, *ten* by his second, *four* by his third, and *seven* by two concubines: his youngest son was *eighty-one* years younger than his eldest; and 800 persons, descended from his body, attended his funeral."—I can add another instance of age and fecundity in this vale, which, though far short of this in point of numbers, is still sufficiently great to prove the healthiness of the place. Jane Price, who died in the year 1694, had at the time of her death *twelve* children, *forty-seven* grand children, and *thirteen* great grand-children.'

We have now reached the end of the first volume; and we should find it a pleasant task, if our limits allowed, to conduct our readers through some of the romantic scenery which in Volume II. is so chastely, and in appearance so faithfully described. We should gladly also make them acquainted with the chapters which contain the author's views of the character and manners of the antient Welsh, and those of their present descendants; from which they would find that he does not regard the one as an imbecile, and the other as a degenerate race. The antient Britons he represents as a nation of warriors, passionately enamoured of independence, possessed of dauntless bravery and infinite enterprize, and noted for warlike stratagems. He admits the vast copiousness and endless variety of their language; and he explains and vindicates

the structure of their poetry. He does not partake in the least degree of the inveterate antipathy imputed to a Caledonian antiquary, but is the friend and admirer of the original inhabitants of our favoured isle, and his accounts represent them as amiable and estimable. In descriptions of nations as well as of individuals, truth ought doubtless to be our sole object: but if we are to err, we have no scruple in saying that it is more creditable, as well as more beneficial, that it should be on the favourable side. If we persuade an individual or a people that they are of an inferior order, we raise a bar to their improvement that is almost insurmountable.—Mr. B.'s sketch of the History of the Welsh Bards and Music, and his selection, in score, of 16 of their favourite airs, will be acceptable to musical readers.

Nothing eludes verbal description more than natural scenery; the elements of our pleasure in this walk are too subtle to be embodied in language; and those who most strongly feel it are at a loss to express it. In this respect, Mr. Bingley practises a reserve which we have more frequently recommended than witnessed. If the pictures sketched by him are less vivid, and his representations less animated, than those of some of his brother tourists, he has the advantage over them on the score of accuracy and fidelity; and if he excites less rapture, he engages more confidence. Few readers of these volumes will be able to restrain an ardent wish to have attended the traveller in his walk from Conway to Bangor over Penmaen-mawr; to have taken up their quarters with him at Caernarvon, in order to traverse the rapturous vales of Llanberis, Beddgelert, Nantgarmon, and Ffestiniog; to have ascended with him the arduous summits of Snowdon and Cader Idris; and to have marched in his track along Valle Crucis, Llangollen, and Edeirion, in order to witness the sublime horrors and enchanting beauties of the views in North Wales.

It will perhaps be said that these volumes are too much occupied by history and antiquities: but it should be remembered that it is extremely difficult to observe the proper medium in these matters. Until travellers are universally furnished with all that relates to the objects which they behold, that is to be collected from the works of antiquaries or from the records of past times, episodes of this nature are indispensable; since, without this knowledge, either previously stored, or recently acquired, almost all that is sentimental in tours will be lost; without it, a ruin is no more than a mouldering edifice; and the spots, which great events have consecrated, are only so much space. With regard to *Natural History*, likewise, Mr. B. furnishes many occasional particulars, as also a *Flora Cambrica*

at the end of the second volume, which will be interesting to the lovers of this rational and attractive science. As far as we can collect from his writing, Mr. B. is moreover a good-humoured traveller; who bears, without murmur or complaint, the inconveniences and privations under which tourists labour, when their curiosity leads them to sequestered and unbeaten tracks. His work is not without faults: but we have judged it to be most for the advantage of our readers to dwell on its excellencies. It is in our opinion the best *Vade Mecum* that has yet appeared, for a North Wales tour.

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ART. XII. *Sir Tristrem*; a Metrical Romance of the Thirteenth Century, by Thomas of Ercildoune, called the Rhymer. Edited from the Auchinleck MS. by Walter Scott, Esq., Advocate. Royal 8vo. pp. 500. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1804.

AS tradition has almost uniformly ascribed the Scottish version of *Sir Tristrem* to the bard of Ercildoune, our curiosity was naturally excited to know the history of this skilful personage; who, in an unlettered age, could execute a long poem in *quaint Inglis*, and surmount the difficulties of a very complicated stanza. Mr. Scott, however, with all his erudition and research, which are confessedly great, and with appropriate opportunities, which few in this part of the island can enjoy, has not been able to discover much that can be deemed satisfactory. It appears that our poet flourished in the thirteenth century, that he possessed some lands at Ercildoune, (now *Earlstoun*, a village on the river Leader, in the county of Berwick,) that he probably lived upwards of seventy years, and that with the vulgar he passed for a prophet.

Much ingenious dissertation is here expended on the history of the poem. The subject may certainly be traced to the historical Triads of the Welsh; and it seems also to have acquired popularity among the rehearsers or *disours* of France, who expanded it into prose narratives: but various arguments are adduced to prove that Thomas borrowed his materials directly from Celtic sources, and clothed them in an *English* dress.

‘ If English, (says the editor,) or a mixture of Saxon, Pictish, and Norman, became early the language of the Scottish court, to which great part of Northumberland was subjected, the minstrels, who crowded their camps, must have used it in their songs. Thus, when the language began to gain ground in England, the northern minstrels, by whom it had already been long cultivated, were the best rehearsers of the poems already written, and the most apt and ready composers of new tales and songs. It is probably owing to this circumstance, that almost all the ancient English minstrel ballads

lads bear marks of a northern origin, and are, in general, common to the borderers of both kingdoms. By this system we may also account for the superiority of the early Scottish over the early English poets, excepting always the unrivalled Chaucer. And, finally, to this we may ascribe the flow of romantic and poetical tradition, which has distinguished the borderers of Scotland almost down to the present day.

The intricate structure of the verse in this poem, and the peculiar character of the style, (which the editor compares to the *Gibbonism* of romance,) are, at least, strong presumptive proofs that it was composed by Thomas of Erchildoune. In its present form, it is professedly related on the authority of the Rhymer :

' I was at [Erchildoune :]  
 With Tomas spak Y thare ;  
 Ther herd Y rede in rounne,  
 Who Tristrem gat and bare.  
 Who was king with croun ;  
 And who him forsterd yare ;  
 And who was bold baroun,  
 As thair elders ware,  
 Bi yere : ———  
 Thomas tells in toun,  
 This auentours as thai ware.'

Mr. Scott conjectures that some minstrel, who had access to the Rhymer, had learned the story from his recitation ; and, that after it had passed through several hands, the compiler of the Auchinleck MS. committed it to writing.

For the sake of the *many* to whom the original will be nearly unintelligible, we shall sketch an outline of the story.

Rouland Rise, lord of Ermonie, having conquered the Duke Morgan, a great and rival baron, again proves victorious in a tournament at the court of Mark, king of Cornwall, and wins the heart of Blanche-flour, sister to that monarch. Sir Tristrem owes his birth to a clandestine interview of the two lovers. Rouland, meanwhile, is apprized by a letter from his faithful friend Rohand, that Morgan, in violation of the late truce, was invading his territories at the head of a powerful army. The lovers forthwith take their departure for Ermonie, and are married in the castle of Rohand : but short was the term of their union ; for Rouland, notwithstanding prodigies of valour, was finally subdued, and treacherously slain, and his consort lived only to learn his untimely fate, and recommend her babe to the care of Rohand. The latter educated his charge as his own son, under the inverted name of Tramtrist, until he became a wonderful proficient in minstrelsy, hunting,

hawking, chess, and all knightly games. In his fifteenth year, he boldly accepted the challenge of a Norwegian shipmaster to play at chess, and was so successful, that the sly captain put off with him to sea. As the vessel, however, was terribly tost in a tempest, which the crew imputed to this act of injustice, the youth was landed in Cornwall, with all his winnings. Being conducted to the court by two palmers, his superior style of carving a buck, his skill on the harp, and his varied accomplishments, quickly recommended him to the royal notice and favour.

The disconsolate Rohand, who had long roamed in quest of his foster-son, at length traced him to Cornwall, and revealed to Mark the history of his birth. The king not only acknowledged him as his nephew, but dubbed him a knight, and gave him a thousand men, with whom he repaired to the castle of Rohand, accompanied by fifteen knights, and followed by Rohand and his troops; he next went to Morgan's palace, upbraided the Duke, killed him in battle, and recovered Ermonic, which he bestowed as a fief on his foster-father.

A more fierce encounter awaited him in Cornwall, where Moraunt, an Irish champion, demanded the accustomed though unjust tribute of three hundred pounds of gold, as many of coined silver, &c. and, every fourth year, three hundred children. Tristrem gave it as his opinion that the exaction should be resisted, and defied Moraunt to the combat. Though wounded by a poisoned weapon, he fatally cleft the skull of his adversary: but so offensive was the gangrene of his own wound, that none had courage to approach his person, except Gouvernayl, his faithful domestic. With this trusty attendant, then, and his harp, he set sail from England, and was driven into the harbour of Dublin. Aware that the queen of Ireland was sister to Moraunt, he again took the name of Tramtrist, and alleged that he had been wounded by pirates. The queen, who was a great proficient in the medical art, being informed that the stranger merchant excelled in minstrelsy, paid him a visit, and was so much delighted that she undertook and effected his cure. The Princess Ysonde then became his pupil, and the theme of his admiration. On his return to his uncle's court, he so warmly extolled the charms of his fair disciple, that the king urged him to bring her over in the quality of royal bride. The barons, who were jealous of Tristrem's ascendancy, also exhorted him to execute a commission which, they trusted, would terminate fatally for himself.

Regardless but not unconscious of his danger, our hero took with him fifteen knights, disguised, like himself, as merchants; and, without revealing the object of his mission, he

sent presents to the king, queen, and princess. The messengers returned with tidings, that a monstrous fiery dragon was laying waste the country, and that the hand of Ysonde was promised as the reward to him who should destroy it. Tristrem boldly undertook the adventure; and the conflict, we may believe, was terrible, for the knight fairly lost his senses, and had his armour burned, though he succeeded in killing the monster. The king's steward, who found the dragon lifeless, and Tristrem in a swoon, cut off the animal's head, and laid claim to the victory: but his pretensions were speedily treated with the contempt which they deserved. The queen and her fair daughter traced the knight, ascertained his triumph, restored him to his senses, and conducted him to a bath. Ysonde began to suspect that she was in company with her former accomplished preceptor; and, on looking round for something which might confirm her suspicion, she fixed her eye on the broken sword. Comparing it with the piece which had been left in Moraunt's skull, she concluded that the stranger was the same person who killed her uncle. In the first moments of their resentment, the mother and daughter had nearly dispatched the hero with his own arms, in the bath: but the king's seasonable arrival, the recollection of his services as the tutor of Ysonde, and, above all, the proposed match with the king of Cornwall, soon restored him to favour. Ysonde was intrusted to his charge; and Brengwain, her favourite attendant, accompanied her on the passage. The queen, at their departure, had given to this waiting dame a powerful love potion, destined for Mark and his bride: but it so happened, by mistake, that Sir Tristrem and Ysonde partook of the philtre during the voyage, and that they were thus involved in a criminal amour. On the first night of the royal nuptials, Brengwain supplied the place of the Princess; while the latter, apprehensive that her substitute might disclose the important secret, had nearly procured her assassination.

Meanwhile, an Irish Earl, a former admirer of Ysonde, arrived at the court of Cornwall; and Mark promised him a boon, if he would play on his harp. The stranger then accompanied his instrument with an amorous descant, in which he asked Ysonde as the promised gift. The king repented his rash vow, but reckoned himself in honour constrained to yield. Tristrem, who returned from hunting just as the earl was sailing off with his prize, seized his rote, and played so sweetly that the departing princess was charmed as by a potent spell, insisted on being relanded, and eloped with Tristrem into a forest. Here they lived a week, when Tristrem restored Ysonde to her lawful lord.

Meriadok, a Cornish knight, and companion of Tristrem, becoming suspicious of the intercourse of the latter with the queen, had recourse to various cunning expedients to ascertain the truth; and his efforts were powerfully seconded by those of an officious dwarf. Their ingenious attempts, however, were as ingeniously counteracted by the guilty pair, and good Mark easily allowed his jealousy to be lulled asleep. The following stratagem at last proved successful. At the suggestion of Meriadok, the king ordered himself, the queen, and his nephew, to be let blood, and the queen's bed-chamber to be strewn with flour. Tristrem, who perceived the snare, *sprang thirty feet at one leap*, and thus made no impression on the flour: but the wound in his vein opened with the effort, and his presence was betrayed by drops of blood. On this discovery, he retired from court, and the queen undertook to prove her innocence by the fiery ordeal. As she was conducted for this purpose to the court at Westminster, she pitched on her lover, who was disguised like a peasant, to bear her from the shore to the vessel in which she was to be conveyed across the Thames. Tristrem, as if from clownish awkwardness, let her fall on the beach, in no very seemly attitude. Ysonde then swore that no man had ever familiarity with her person, except her husband, and this poor fainting peasant; and her good-natured *Cornish* husband absolved her from the hazardous trial of hot iron.

In Wales, Sir Tristrem reaped fresh laurels by his signal defeat of Urgan, the giant, and brother to Duke Morgan. So grateful was Triamour, king of Wales, that he bestowed on his deliverer the sovereignty of the county, and made him a present of Pericrewe, a little dog, spotted with red, blue, and green. The generous hero immediately gave the crown to the king's daughter, and sent the dog as a present to Ysonde.

The growing fame of the nephew reconciled him to the uncle, who appointed him his high steward. Again the lovers renew their intrigues, again they are banished from court, and again kindly received by the indulgent Mark; who found them sleeping together in a cavern, but who was satisfied of their innocence because his nephew's sword was accidentally placed between them. The dwarf, however, was not tardy in disclosing farther proofs of their unlawful passion; and Sir Tristrem fled to Spain, where he killed three giants, visited the sons of Rohand in Ermonie, and then conquered the enemies of Florentine, Duke of Brittany. In reward of his services, the Duke consented to his marriage with his only daughter, Ysonde with the white hand. As they passed to the bridal-chamber, the ring, with which the queen of Cornwall had presented

presented him, felt from his finger: he reflected on her constancy, upbraided his own infidelity, and never consummated his marriage with Ysonde of the white hand.

We are next treated with the adventure of Beliagog, a fierce giant, and brother to Morgan, Urgan, and Moraunt. Sir Tristrem spared his life, on condition of his building a magnificent hall, in honour of Ysonde and Brengwain. The maimed giant gladly fulfilled the singular stipulation, constructed the hall within his own castle, and adorned it with the sculptured history of the knight's adventures, and striking likenesses of Ysonde, Brengwain, Mark, Peticrewe, &c.

Sir Ganhardin, meanwhile, who learned from his sister, the white-handed Ysonde, that she was still a maiden, was on the point of quarrelling with her husband. The latter, however, assumed such a firm tone, and spoke so feelingly of the charms of his mistress, whose image he shewed him in the marvellous castle, that Ganhardin forgot his wrath, and became enamoured of Brengwain, whom he swore to see, or perish. The two knights, accordingly, passed over to Cornwall, and encountered Ysonde and Brengwain in a forest. Canados, the new constable, and an admirer of Ysonde, here disturbed their privacy: but he, Meriadok, and the other informers, are shamefully worsted in a sharp conflict with Tristrem and Ganhardin, who retire to Brittany.

'Here Tristrem is accosted by a young knight, wearing no shoes, who had sought him for a long time. This young warrior, whose name is also Tristrem, throws himself at the feet of our hero, and beseeches his assistance in a perilous adventure. A knight has bereaved him of his lady. The ravisher, with his seven brethren, and seven other knights, are to escort their prize, upon that very day, to some place of security; the suppliant knight proposes to his namesake to assist him in her rescue. Tristrem readily assents.—The two knights arm themselves, and prepare for battle: they attack the party of ravishers, on "a lee beside a forest." Tristrem, the younger, is soon slain: our hero avenges his death, and slays the fifteen knights. In this battle he receives an arrow in his old wound.'

As the remainder of the MS. is here torn away, the editor has very skilfully supplied the story from the French metrical romance; imitating, with singular success, the same rapid and quaint style, and the same complex stanza.

Ganhardin was dispatched for Ysonde, as the only person who could cure the wounded knight; and, according as the ambassador succeeded or failed in his mission, he was instructed to hoist a white or a black sail on his return. Ysonde of Brittany, who had overheard the conversation, and was resolved

solved to be avenged, eagerly watched the return of the vessel, and ran to inform her husband that the sail was black. Sir Tristrem, deceived by the false assertion, believed that he was forsaken, and died in despair; while Ysonde of Cornwall, apprized of his fate, threw herself beside his corpse, and expired.

On the consistency or morality of such a fable, we cannot dwell with commendation :—but the poem is replete with incident, exhibits a picture of the manners and taste of the age in which it was composed, and is therefore a relic worthy of preservation:

As we have hinted at the antiquated and obscure complexion of the style, and at the singular intricacy of the measure, we shall transcribe only a few stanzas, at random :

‘ Mark to Tristrem gan say,  
—“ Mi lond bitake y the,  
To have atter mi day,  
Thine owen schal it be,  
Bring thou me that may,  
That ich her may yse.”—  
This was his manner aye,  
Of Ysonde than speketh he,  
Her prise,  
Hou sche was gent and fre,  
Of love was none so wise.’

‘ In Ingland ful wide,  
The barouns hem bithought,  
To fell Tristremes pride,  
How thai fairest mought;  
The king thai rad to ride,  
A quen to him thai sought,  
That Tristrem might abide,  
That he no were it nought,  
No king:  
Thai seyde that Tristrem mought  
Ysonde of Yrlond bring.

‘ —“ A brid bright, thai ches,  
As blod opou snoweing;  
A maiden of swiche reles,  
Tristrem may to the bring;”—  
Quoth Tristrem,—“ It is les,  
And troweth it for lesing,  
To aski that never no wes,  
It is a fole askeing,  
Bi kinde:  
It is a selli thing,  
For no man may it finde.”

The volume is very handsomely printed : but the impression, we understand, is limited to 150 copies. The publication is, therefore, destined to the wealthy few ; a species of aristocracy which we cannot praise, though in this instance it may not be a subject of much regret.

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ART. XIII. *Military Character of the different European Armies engaged in the late War* : with a Parallel of the Policy, Power, and Means of the antient Romans and modern French. Translated from the French. 2d Edition. 8vo. pp. 190. 4s. Boards. Egerton. 1804.

WE claim some merit for the share which we took in drawing the public attention to the original of this performance\* ; and we have been abundantly justified in the praise which we bestowed on it as an able and an useful work, since among all competent judges but one sentiment has prevailed with respect to it. Though the translation has been rather slow in obtaining our notice, we are happy in having another opportunity of making our acknowledgements on the part of the British public to the ingenious and accomplished authors, and of strenuously recommending the volume to those of our readers who have not given it a perusal. Indeed, the hostile operations, already renewed on the Continent, again impart to these remarks an immediate interest, scarcely less than they possessed on their first appearance ; and we shall therefore submit to our readers a few of the more material parts, without criticism or comment.

We should commence with the observations on the troops of the French nation, but that we consider their peculiarities and characteristics as now more generally known than those of some others of the contending parties. Let us turn, then, to the following extract, which contains an able summary of the principal defects in the Austrian service :—in the short interval of peace, there probably has not been time, if there existed the disposition, to remedy them :

‘ In spite of the examples of Laudohn, of the Archduke Charles, and of some other Generals, the Austrians have almost always kept themselves on the defensive in lines, positions, or *cordons*. The uncertainty as to the point, where the enemy may attack, obliges them to divide their forces, and necessarily to be every where weak ; lines become unavoidably a succession of points, more or less feeble ; it is impossible then to have reserves in sufficient force, or sufficiently within reach.

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\* See Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 540.

The cavalry, which is the principal strength of the Austrians, is here of little utility. When we read the accounts of the greater part of their battles, we naturally ask, "where then was that numerous, that excellent cavalry of the Austrians?" The General, who accepts battle, fights upon the ground, or at least according to the circumstances, which the enemy has chosen, and in the manner which suits him. The French avoid, as much as possible, having any thing to do with the Austrian cavalry. Add to this, the close order, which the French infantry generally observe, (and from which they would be obliged to depart, if instead of giving, they accepted battle,) leaves them little cause to be afraid of cavalry, which is well known to be only formidable in proportion as the infantry is bad, or in thin order. We cannot sufficiently express our astonishment, that the Austrian Generals should renounce the superiority of their tactics, and of their skill in manœuvring, and give the French an opportunity of employing the means that are peculiar to them. The latter are particularly skilful, wherever the ground is such as to secure them from the cavalry, by scattering their riflemen so as to annoy the Austrian *corps* in every quarter. The French soldiers, who are more active, more enterprising, and ready in availing themselves of every advantage of ground, will hang round bodies of men that are much more numerous than themselves; they molest, harass, and advance upon them, by means of the smallest shelter; the Austrians, in the mean time, preserve their rank and file, but their oblique firing has not the least effect upon men who are either scattered about, or advantageously posted; while every discharge of the latter, being levelled at a considerable body, cannot fail of telling. When the Austrians advance, the riflemen withdraw, but return to the charge, as soon as the Austrians retire again\*: the Austrian troop is thus harassed by an enemy, that keeps out of its reach, and whose numbers, upon looking at the extent of ground which they occupy, appear more considerable than they really are. This method of fighting continues, until the losses they have experienced, and the inutility of resistance, produce discouragement and confusion; until, at length, the troops overwhelmed with fatigue and thrown into disorder, either disperse, or lay down their arms. The French, who would not have dared to meet these same Austrians in open field, have often defeated and taken thousands of them with some hundreds of men only: for the instant their ranks are broken, the Austrians become like a flock of sheep dispersed, and incapable of re-uniting. The coolness of the Austrians is inexplicable. The humiliation of surrendering their arms does not seem to affect them any more than the dangers of a battle. One would suppose, in considering their indifference, that it was nothing but the *finale* of a pantomime or ballet. The Austrians carry their fear of being out-flanked or turned, to a degree which is at once ridiculous and extravagant; it might indeed be called a national disorder, or weakness. They fancy themselves out-flanked, or enveloped at the very mo-

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\* \* This was the case among the sand hills in Holland, when the British advanced under the recurring fire of the French musquetry.  
T.

ment, in which they might surround those, who have had the rashness to out-run them. This excessive apprehension disconcerts their plans; and drives them to retrograde movements at a time, when, in order to beat the enemy, they have only to advance upon him.

‘The French Generals, like rich and bold gamblers, are incessantly tempting fortune. They look upon their losses as nothing, provided they succeed in the end. The little value, which they set upon their men, the certainty of being able to replace them, the personal ambition of their chiefs, the customary superiority of their numbers, afford them an advantage, which cannot be counteracted but by great skill, conduct, and activity.

‘The Austrian Generals, disciplined by rule, and accustomed to the literal execution of their orders, are in dread of the responsibility of the event, and of what it may cost them, not only in men, but in military effects, in baggage, ammunition, and artillery. Having only regular troops, and no good light infantry, they are of course more circumspect and tardy in their movements. They are more apprehensive of being defeated, than they are ambitious of conquering. Their Generals in chief look forward to the Aulic council of war \* or court martial, with greater apprehension than to the French. Hence, the slowness of their motions, the multiplicity of their precautions, and the whole of their defensive system: he, who is beaten, is acquitted, if he was attacked; but he, who gets himself beat in attacking, is lost without resource; as if, not to attack would prevent being attacked! or not seeking to fight could prevent being beaten! In proportion as the rank of officers descends, their conduct becomes more mechanical, till at length it reduces the private soldier to the degraded state of a mere automaton.’

To the author's remarks on the English armies we principally attended in our former article, and therefore need not again advert to them.

On the soldiers of a great northern power, to which Europe now looks with such anxious expectation, we have these observations:

‘In their discipline and tactics, the Russians are the disciples of the Prussians, and adhere strictly to the school of Frederick the Great; they practise, what the Prussians did thirty years ago.’—

‘The Russian soldier is deficient in instruction rather than intelligence: the servile obedience, to which he is accustomed from his birth, the rigorous discipline of the army, and his absolute separation from all other nations, (whose language and manners are totally unknown to him,) make him more obedient to his officers, and more patient and hardy, than the soldier of any other service. Courage is the general characteristic; it is, if we may so express ourselves, the

‘\* Much as the system of military discipline amongst us corresponds with that of the Austrians, in point of evolutions, we trust, it will never be the fate of any one of our Generals to be cramped by a military council.’ T.

We have lately heard that the Archduke Charles has effected the abolition of the Aulic Council. *Rev.*

faith

faith and creed of the Russian soldier. Implicit obedience occasions in him the same effects, that enthusiasm does on other nations. The effect, which servitude produces, is in this instance, the same with that of the most ardent patriotism; it is more sure and durable than that of enthusiasm; the artificial warmth of which cannot be long kept up. Thus, what by philosophers is called the last state of degradation, places man on the same level with heroism. The Russian soldiers do not conceive it possible to give up the contest, so long as they have life to continue it. The officers, are, in general, very ignorant, for this reason strangers are in high esteem among them\*; they are brave in the ranks, but, like the soldiers, they are so from the effect of discipline. The same horror is conceived in the Russian armies of cowardice, as is entertained in other countries, against irreligion and villainy. Bravery is a duty from which nobody considers himself exempt. A Russian camp resembles a horde of Tartars. In the same manner that a people accustomed to obey the laws mechanically observe them, so do the Russians constantly follow the rules of discipline, without daring to depart from them.†—

\* Their method is to charge the enemy with the bayonet, at full speed, crying, *Owri, Owri*; no troops in the world can stand this charge: the firing does not abate their impetuosity; they attack a battery in front, if that is a readier way, than to attack it in flank†.

† To withstand this shock, the enemy must not wait for it, but proceed to meet it with the same resolution. The French are more remarkable for boldness and rashness, than for intrepidity; the approach of the long and broad Russian bayonets always alarmed them; their grenadiers could never stand their impression. The courage of the Russians is proof against every thing; they know how to die to ensure victory, and to die rather than be beaten. They will beat all other troops, if they can but bring them to action: they are moving machines of fire, that consume all in their way. No troops in the world are so careless of being attacked in flank, or turned; they think, let the enemy be where he will, if they can but face about to meet him, that he is in front and regular array before them‡.

‡ The Russian discipline is extremely rigorous, and has all the ingredients of an autocratical government. The subordination amongst the officers of different ranks, is almost as great as that of private soldiers to their officers in other services; they are sometimes treated

\* So much so, that any adventurer with a specious appearance, and with common daring may get into the first situations. Witness the success with which the notorious Major Semple, alias Major Lisle, got himself into the good graces of Prince Potemkin.' T.

† They are, in fact, perfect strangers to that species of chicanery in war, with which modern tactics are so frequently interwoven.' T.

‡ This character is the reverse of what has been given, and certainly constitutes that of the Austrian army. We cannot, therefore, wonder at the issue of a campaign conducted with such heterogeneous views, and contradictory means.' T.

in the same manner as the privates. Their bravery is the effect of discipline, more than of elevated sentiments.

Each company has its hero ; it is a distinction, which he obtains from the suffrages of his comrades ; he has no pre-eminence determined by order, though he has in effect a very great one ; he is the example, the model, and the chief of the mess ; he enjoys great consideration among his comrades, and never fails to give them an example of bravery, firmness, and good conduct. When men are accustomed to any thing, it is sufficient for one to give an example, to induce the others to follow it: this it is, that renders the hero in question so useful in action. Few persons are capable of setting an example, though almost all are capable of following it.'

We must now restrain our pen, and conclude with advising our military and political readers to consult the work at large.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1805.

### HISTORY.

Art. 14. *A New History of Great Britain from the Invasion of Julius Cæsar to the present Time*: exhibiting to the Minds of Youth a variety of instructive and pleasing Information, and some Particulars now first adapted to the Capacities of young People of both Sexes:—the whole calculated to operate as moral Lessons, while it contains every leading Trait of the History of England. On a Plan nearly similar to that of Dr. Henry. By the Rev. John Adams, A.M., Author of *Lectiones Selectæ*, &c. 12mo. pp. 480. 4s. bound. Law, &c.

COMPILATIONS of this nature are intitled to praise, provided that they are executed with tolerable accuracy, because it is highly commendable to invite our youth to the study of the history of their own country: but, however concise, they ought not to be carelessly executed; nor should the compiler suppose that brevity is an apology for a want of precision. A history designed for young persons, we may fairly suppose, will be a kind of text-book in the hand of the master, and will be committed to memory by the pupil. In the first instance, therefore, the references should not be merely general, as see Diodorus Siculus, Tacitus, Julius Cæsar, Pliny, &c.: but the particular book and chapter should be specified. In the latter case, names, places, and dates should be carefully given.—Now we cannot open the compendium before us without perceiving that Mr. Adams has been negligent in both these respects. He merely quotes the names of authors at the bottom of his page, by which he occasions great trouble to the persons who wish to consult his sources; and he has not been sufficiently solicitous in tracing what may be termed the outlines and stations of history. We find him, in the outset, telling the young reader that Calais was the place at which Julius

Julius Cæsar embarked, when it is more probable that the *Portus Itius*, or *Itcius*, was Boulogne, or some adjacent spot. He states also that Britain was subject to the Romans, more or less, 500 years: but the whole period of the subjection of the Britons to the Romans was not more than 464 or 465 years.—We read in the chapter on the religion of the antient Britons, that not only the Druids cherished a sacred reverence for the Oak, but that even the Jewish patriarchs entertained an equal veneration for this tree; and in support of this assertion, we are referred to Gen. xxxi. This reference should be Gen. xxxv. 4.: but Mr. Adams, as a divine, should have known that the Hebrew word *אֵלֶּךָ* which is rendered *oak* in our bibles, is translated by the LXX *τεκεβας*; and that their version is most correct, since the oak is not a native of Palestine, or at least does not flourish there, as the turpentine tree does.

The idea of the Jewish patriarchs' veneration for the oak is similar to the information which presents itself in the concluding paragraph, that, 'if any of the apostles visited this country, it was St. Paul.' This is worse than trifling with youth; it is deceiving them; for there is no positive evidence to induce a belief that St. Paul was ever nearer to this country than Rome. The Acts of the Apostles, which give for the most part the Life of Paul, mention no peregrinations of the Apostle, subsequent to his being conveyed a prisoner to that capital of the world.

We enter our protest also against the admission of Ossian's poems as historic evidence, however valuable in other respects; for we cannot approve the introduction of fiction in the room of fact.

As Mr. Adams advances, we find less reason to object; though we observe an error in the chapter on the learning of the Anglo-Saxons, where the venerable Bede is said to be 'the great luminary of England and the Christian world in the eighteenth century:' Mr. A., no doubt, meant to write the eighth.

This epitome is divided into nine books, and the matter of each is generally arranged under the following heads: Military History, Ecclesiastical Affairs, Government, Literature, Arts, Biographical Sketches, Manufactures and Commerce, Manners, and Incidents and curious Particulars. The whole is compiled with the double view of conveying important and amusing instruction, and of inspiring the youthful mind with sentiments of virtue, patriotism, and philanthropy. In the concluding book, the biographical notices occupy a considerable space, conveying a short account of the eminent men who adorned the eighteenth century. The last events, which are recorded in the class of curious particulars, are the treaty of Amiens, Sir John Eamer's display of the *Man in armour*, on Lord Mayor's Day, Nov. 9, 1801, the sailing of the French fleet from Brest to St. Domingo in the month of December, and the court martial held on board the *Gladiator* in Portsmouth harbour, for the trial of the mutineers of the *Temeraire*, Jan. 6, 1802. It is singular, however, that though Mr. Adams mentions the treaty of Amiens, he does not give the day on which it was signed, which was March 27, 1802.

We approve Mr. Adams's plan, and in general his mode of execution; we shall therefore advise him in a subsequent edition  
carefully

carefully to revise his work, to correct errors, to supply omissions, and at least to affix a table of contents, if he should consider it at too much trouble to subjoin an index.

## RELIGIOUS.

Art. 15. *Researches into the Phraseology, Manners, History, and Religion of the ancient Eastern Nations*, as illustrative of the Sacred Scriptures, and into the Accuracy of the English Translation of the Bible. By William Burton. Vol. I. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards, (fine Paper, 6s. 6d.) Burton, Vidler, &c.

These researches consist in a great measure of notes on passages of Scripture selected from various authors, for the purpose of correcting and illustrating the sacred text. With the selections, Mr. Burton has interspersed some strictures of his own; and he has prefixed to the whole an introduction containing succinct accounts of the Septuagint, Samaritan Pentateuch, the Targûms, or the Chaldee Paraphrases, the Talmud, and the Massora. He seems to have taken pains to make himself acquainted with theological subjects: but, as biblical criticism is a very extensive field, we are of opinion that, if he had been less hasty in publication, and had given himself time to examine as well as select, his work would have appeared with more reputation. We were not a little amazed at his grave repetition of the fabulous story of Aristeas, respecting the manner in which the Greek version of the Bible, called the Septuagint, was accomplished; a story which, from the beginning to the end, is replete with the most palpable fictions. Nor were we less surprized that a man who undertakes the office of a biblical critic should tell us that the celebrated 'Alexandrian MS. is in the Royal Library at St. James's,' when every scholar knows that it has long been removed thence, and deposited in the British Museum.

Had Mr. B. actually consulted the Septuagint, or been better acquainted with the Hebrew, he would not have proposed some of the emendations which he has recommended on the authority of former critics. 1 Chron. xx. 3. is explained by Dr. Chandler and some other expositors in such a manner as to exonerate the character of David from the imputation of savage cruelty: but the version of the LXX, which is said in p. 69 of this work 'to be clear,' is decisive against the supposition that the Amorites were mildly treated. *Ἀνέμοι πρὸς* cannot mean that David put them to work with saws. The substitution also of *south-wind*, according to the LXX, for *east-wind*, the translation of the Hebrew text, in Exod. xiv. 21. recommended at p. 16. on the authority of Mr. King, is not authorised by the geographical remarks. The passage of the Israelites was over a small arm of the Red Sea to the North of Suez; and to consider the operation of any wind at the strait of Babelmandel, or on the coast of Cape Guardafue, is of little moment. An east-wind seems as likely to answer the purpose as a south-wind.

We allow that the remark on Gen. xxi. 16. is just: but had the Septuagint been consulted, Mr. B. would have found the words to have been "And the *lad* (*παῖς*) lift up his voice and wept." The adoption of the reading of the LXX, Gen. iv. 15. and in Exod.

xvi. 15. is certainly an improvement of the text ; for " giving a token to Cain " is preferable to " setting a mark on him ; and as to the passage in Exodus, it is obvious that the Israelites could not have been familiar with the name of a substance, of which they never heard before. On 1 Sam. i. 11. Mr. B. has made extracts to prove that יהוה צבאות should be rendered *The glorious Jehovah*, deriving the word not from צבא *an host*, but from צב *glory* : but this is not admissible. The word צבאות occurs too often to afford any doubt of its meaning ; and if the LXX sometimes retain the original *σαβαωθ*, they at others translate it by *παινοῦντες*, and by (θεοι) *δυναμειν*.

In a note on Exod. iii. 5. after having adverted to the custom still prevalent in the East, of taking off the shoes or sandals on entering a place of religious worship, Mr. Burton very properly notices the different modes of expressing reverence in the East and in the West. The inhabitants of the former denote it by uncovering the feet ; Europeans by uncovering the head. We have also a short essay on Saul's consultation of the witch of Endor, which discovers some penetration, though there is no ground for making the sorceress a worshipper of the Sacred Serpent of Egypt : but Mr. B.'s judgment must have suffered an eclipse when he transcribed Mr. King's reason for Jonah's living in the whale's belly. ' Jonah,' we are informed, ' had probably the *foramen ovale* of his heart open from his birth to the end of his days ; so that he could neither be drowned nor suffocated by being swallowed by a fish ; and as he could not be suffocated, he could not be digested in the fish's stomach ; and the whale, finding Jonah to be an indigestible morsel, took the first opportunity of throwing him up again, or of returning him to the light.' If this, indeed, be *modern philosophy*, we wonder not that some persons should object to it ; for it can only serve to discredit our religion.

Some observations are made by Mr. B. to remove the difficulties which occur in the account of the pool of Bethesda, in John v. 2—4, but we cannot regard him as successful ; nor can we see the least reason for supposing that the porches, or porticos, which surrounded it, were the remains of an idolatrous temple dedicated by the Canaanites to the Sun.

Among the variety of topics included in these researches, Jephtha's daughter, and Lot's wife, obtain respectable notice : but we must not now attend to these Ladies ; nor shall we examine the long Essay on the Deluge, though it is introduced by a quotation from Swedenburgh, *before he was inspired*. We have adduced sufficient indications of the nature of this compilation ; and if Mr. B. should be encouraged to prosecute his undertaking, we shall have a farther opportunity of discussing his merit as a biblical commentator.

#### GEOGRAPHY.

Art. 16. *A New Dictionary of Ancient Geography*, exhibiting the modern in Addition to the ancient Names of Places, designed for the Use of Schools, and of those who are reading the Classics or other antient Authors. By Charles Pyc. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We prefer the old mode of having separate divisions, the one including *antient*, and the other *modern* geography, to that of uniting both under the same alphabetical arrangement. When the title of this work is considered, it seems somewhat incongruous that the account of places should be inserted under the modern name, and a mere reference under that of the antient. These accounts appear to be in general correct, but they are, in our judgment, too brief to be satisfactory.

Art. 17. *A concise Treatise of Modern Geography, on a New Plan; with Historical Remarks*, detached from the Scientifical Part of the Work. To which are added a Number of Geographical Questions adapted to the present Work. By B. Donne. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Printed at Bristol. 1804.

This tract claims a preference to others on the same subject, on the score of greater conciseness, and of a form more inviting. Respecting the accuracy of its multifarious particulars, it is impossible for us to speak.

#### ARCHITECTURE, &c.

Art. 18. *Hints for Picturesque Improvements in ornamented Cottages, and their Scenery*: including some Observations on the Labourer and his Cottage. Illustrated by Sketches. By Edmund Bartell, Jun. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Taylor, High Holborn. 1804.

Landed proprietors will meet with many observations worth their attention in this work; which principally consists of three essays, on cottages, usually appropriated to the residence of gentlemen: on the connected grounds and appendages; and on the dwellings of the labouring poor. In the first two, Mr. Bartell investigates what objects should be kept in view both for convenience and characteristic appearance, and the best means of attaining those objects. The concluding essay contains some sensible hints for rendering the residence of the peasant more advantageous to the occupier, to the proprietor, and to the community.

Art. 19. *Designs for Cottages, Cottage Farms, and other Rural Buildings*; including Entrance-gates and Lodges. By Joseph Gandy, Architect, R. A. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Harding. 1805.

These designs occupy forty-three plates, and are accompanied with descriptions and estimates; together with an introduction, in which the author says, that his 'general aim has been to diffuse a more extended idea of taste, even in buildings of the lowest class, and in every part of the country, than prevails at present; and should his exertions towards that end meet the public approbation, it is his intention to pursue the subject in a second series of designs.'

"There is no disputing about taste." Perhaps Mr. Gandy has given the sepulchral forms in compliance with the taste of a *sombre* patron: but they do not accord with our ideas of a cheerful cottage. Flat roofs may assist the effect in a drawing: but he who attempts to build from such designs will be woefully disappointed, on finding that the common materials used for roofs in this climate demand a very different elevation. Little attention has been paid to the practicality

cability of realizing the plans: for instance, in plate 37, we observe two stair-cases which do not conduct to the rooms for which they are intended. In short, these are cottages for carnival time; when, in compliance with the whim of the moment, good sense wears the garb of folly, and nature is contented to figure in masquerade.

Art. 20. *Architectural Sketches for Cottages, Rural Dwellings, and Villas*, by R. Lugar. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. plain; 2l. 12s. 6d. coloured. Taylor, High Holborn: 1805.

The author thus prefaces this work: 'In the following designs I have endeavoured to lay before the public a variety of plans and elevations suitable to persons in genteel life: to which are added a few of fancy subjects, which I flatter myself may be deemed picturesque, and applicable for size and expence to many situations on an extensive estate. The cottages are calculated for those persons whose liberal minds may lead them to accommodate their peasantry and dependants with dwellings, and at the same time to embellish their domains with a variety of picturesque buildings, which shall be both ornamental and useful.'

The ensuing occur among other judicious remarks:

'I shall here beg leave to introduce a few observations on a branch of the subject now under consideration, and which has undergone much discussion by some late authors of celebrity, on the subject of the picturesque, who have strongly urged the great delight they have felt on viewing a cottage or building, the walls of which are thickly covered with ivy, and strongly marked with weather stains. If the thatch be ruined, and partly fallen in, the subject will the nearer approach to beautiful! Shall such be patterns to build from? Certainly not!—These are objects, I grant, notwithstanding their offensive ruin and dampness, highly gratifying to the painter's eye; for here is variety of broken forms, great play of light and shadow, with a pleasing depth of tone of colouring, and such are peculiarly suited, from the hand of a master, to form enchanting subjects on canvas. And I trust the philanthropy of these gentlemen intended to urge this argument no farther, than to give instances of pleasing subjects for a painter's use and study. They must be well aware, that for the habitation of man the walls should be upright and clean, the thatch strong and even, the garden with its paling in good order, and the threshold neat: these are the true characteristics of the habitation of civilized man, and of the peasant's cot; and such will most certainly claim our highest praise. I shall conclude these observations by wishing to establish, as maxims proper for cottages, cleanliness and dryness, in opposition to neglect and ruin, as objects of more real satisfaction than can be afforded by moss-grown houses and mutilated walls. Nor can I suppose that, in adhering to these attentions to comfort, the picturesque will be at all in danger.'

Many of the designs are evidently the result of much attention to the various requisites for such buildings, and are very creditable to the author.

Art. 21. *A Collection of Designs for Household Furniture, and interior Decoration, in the most approved and elegant Taste: viz. Sideboards*  
*Boo*

Bookcases, Beds and Cornices, Chairs, Stools, Fauteuils, Commodes, Window-curtains, Pier-tables, Candelabra, Tables for Libraries, Writing, Work, Dressing, &c. Sofas, Ottomans, Console-tables, Chaise-longues, Glasses, Mirrors, Lamps, Jardinieres, Wardrobes, Pedestals, Chiffoniers, &c. &c. With various Designs for Rooms, shewing the Decorations, Adjustment of the Furniture, &c. Elegantly engraved from original Drawings, by George Smith, Upholder extraordinary to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. 4to. Part I. with 50 Plates. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. plain, 2l. 12s. 6d. coloured. Taylor, High Holborn. 1805.

The plates contained in this publication are introduced by the following advertisement :

‘ In selecting the articles, and in composing the designs for this work, the Artist is anxious to exhibit principally such as are suitable to elegant and polite life, and for adorning the most extensive mansions : he flatters himself the work will display a variety of the newest fashions, combined with classic taste, for the most useful and most superb articles of modern decorative furniture, studied from the best antique examples in the Egyptian, Etruscan, Greek, and Roman styles ; and he presumes it will be found particularly useful to noblemen and gentlemen who are curious in the decoration of their houses ; also to cabinet-makers, upholders, paper-hangers, &c. who may have the arranging, furnishing, and fitting-up of houses committed to their care.’

The designs correspond with the prevailing taste, and present a variety of examples for selecting internal decorations and furniture, that will probably be much admired.

This pamphlet forms the first division of a work which, when completed, will consist of three parts.

#### POLITICAL.

Art. 22. *A Sketch of the Political State of Europe at the Beginning of February 1805.* By William Hunter, Esq. Author of the “Vindication of the Cause of Great Britain,” and other Political Tracts. 8vo. pp. 205. 4s. sewed. Stockdale.

From the epoch of Bonaparte’s accession to power, the works which have issued from the French press have teemed with invectives against this country, ringing everlasting changes on its naval tyranny, its commercial monopoly, and its antipacific spirit. Mr. Hunter, it is probable, thought that it did not become Britons to sit down silently under such charges ; he has consequently descended into the arena, and has attacked, with weapons similar to their own, the servile publicists of the Gallic ruler. They are here reproached in no measured terms with the enormities which stained the revolution, with the excesses by which they forfeited their right to liberty, and with the abject devotion with which they hug the galling chains of a foreigner.

In the introductory part of this performance, the author traces the progress of the human mind, from the first settlement of the northern barbarians in the south of Europe, to the epoch of the French revolution. He ascribes to the principles of the school of

Voltaire, a greater share in the production of the late changes than in our judgment really belonged to them; and he is somewhat inconsistent with himself on this subject: since he appears in other parts of his work to regard the gross maladministration of the latter reigns, the shameful corruptions of the government, and the crazy state of the civil edifice, as causes which sufficiently account for the awful catastrophe.

The aim of Mr. Hunter is to prove that it is the clear indubitable interest of the principal states of the Continent to enter into a coalition, such as that which has lately been announced, and which took place since this pamphlet was written. The conduct of Austria in the last struggle, its losses and acquisitions, as well as its present situation, and the resources which it is able to command, are detailed with great minuteness, and much apparent ability. Mr. Hunter, however, we think, fails in his attempt to shew that it has been throughout the interest of Prussia to take an active part against France.

We were surprized that Mr. H. should intimate an opinion that Spain, assisted by Britain, might make head against her dangerous neighbour: but our surprize ceased, when we found him throw out something like an expectation that the present nobility may be roused from the disgraceful lethargy in which they are sunk, and incited to emulate their brave ancestors, the heroic conquerors of the Moors. The anticipations of a writer of this sort are obviously to be regarded with distrust; they may flatter our hopes and wishes, but will it be safe to rely on them?

Russia excites no jealousy in the bosom of this writer, who views her interference altogether on the favourable side. He also enhances the value of Swedish assistance, and seems to expect the alliance of Denmark, either voluntarily or by compulsion. With regard to Russia, however, Mr. Hunter contemplates her *intimacy* with this country in one point with alarm; and our sentiments on this subject have long been in unison with those which he expresses. Laying down the indisputable position that our national superiority, and even safety, depend on the decided preponderance of our naval strength and skill, he observes:

‘On these principles I object most decidedly to that permission which was granted, about eighteen months ago, of permitting Russia to distribute three hundred boys, who had been selected and previously prepared by the government of that empire, in the quality of midshipmen, on board the British fleets. These boys have been admitted, in my opinion most injudiciously, to serve in our navy at the period of life at which our own midshipmen usually begin their career; and having been picked out of numbers on account of their superior intelligence and sprightliness, it is very evident that they are likely to derive every advantage from their apprenticeship, which could be hoped for from the same number of British boys so chosen. They must inevitably be familiarised with the whole ground-work and system of naval tactics as they are practised in the British navy. This science and skill they will carry with them into their own country, where they will probably, in the course of years, fill important stations, and lay the foundation of a Russian navy which, at some future

future period, may rival ours. The period when this may happen is no doubt remote; yet this is the surest mode of lessening that distance of time, and I think posterity will owe little thanks to that foresight or prudence which has so impolitically conceded, and which, carried to a greater extent, may be productive of very serious mischief.

He likewise makes some just remarks on the regulation in our naval service, by which every captain is obliged to furnish his own charts; in consequence of which, a serious and even fatal deficiency may sometimes occur. He recommends that every ship should be furnished with all necessary nautical instruments, and a complete set of charts, at the expence of government, for which the captain might be responsible.

We submit to our readers the terms of peace which, in Mr. Hunter's judgment, we should demand:

'The restoration of Hanover, and compensation, as far as compensation can be made, for the outrages there committed; the complete emancipation of the Ligurian and Helvetian republics; the withdrawing of the French troops from Holland, and the independence of the Batavian government; all interference in the affairs of Spain, and Portugal, relinquished; the reinstatement of the king of Sardinia; an apology for the insults committed against our minister at Hamburgh, and for the imprisonment of British subjects in France, contrary to the laws of war, or the public rights of civilized nations: these must be some of the leading outlines of future negotiation, and the only basis on which a peace with this country can be expected to be brought about. They will no doubt to many minds appear extravagant: but they are what I do not despair of seeing accomplished: for, by such means only, can we secure to ourselves the blessings of repose, or curb the wild and unprincipled extravagance of the new emperor.'

Though much is here said respecting France, and Europe at large, a leading object of the work seems to have been to discredit the recent union of the two parties in opposition, and to engage public confidence on the side of the existing administration. We do not think that Mr. H. has succeeded so well in this as in some other parts. If we mistake not, he builds his reasoning, as it refers to this topic, less on facts than on assertions and assumptions. The publication, however, is on the whole creditable to the industry, the information, and the patriotism of the writer; and it will gratify curious and speculative politicians, if it should fail to attract the notice of the practical statesman.

**Art. 23.** *Report of the Committee for managing the Patriotic Fund established at Lloyd's Coffee-house.* 8vo. boards. Not sold.

We are glad to see a record, which constitutes a monument so glorious to the patriotism of the age, endowed with a form that promises to transmit it to posterity; among whom it will bear testimony to the noble feelings which animated the breasts of Britons in our days, and may excite our descendants to similar exertions. A spirit more honourable, the best days of the country never witnessed;

may it continue, and may the measures of administration correspond with and prove worthy of it!

This Report states that, in March 1804, upwards of 170,000*l.* had been subscribed for this really Patriotic Fund; and it details the sums which had been expended by the Committee, in rewards bestowed on those who had distinguished themselves by gallant actions during the war; for which the letters published in the Gazette, from the commanding officers, are here copied as documents.—Another Report has lately appeared, but we have not yet seen it.

## ARTS.

*Art. 24. An Essay on Light and Shade, on Colours, and on Composition in general.* By M. Gartside. 4to. pp. 50. and 11 Plates. 1*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Gardiner. 1805.

This essay contains many useful precepts, and is well calculated to improve the class of readers for whom it is intended. When ladies of fashion, with a laudable emulation, and a persevering zeal, cultivate abstruse subjects of philosophy, Miss Gartside steps forwards to assist her fair pupils in the humbler, yet not less fascinating walk of art; and in the *flowery* paths of decorative painting, she inculcates the necessity of a gradual system of study, to produce excellence. In the introduction to the work, a very proper stress is laid on the necessity of studying the '*rules of the arts*,' which will always repay the pupils for the trouble that they have taken; 'while those who pursue the practical part alone, can make no progress whenever their teacher or copy is withdrawn.'

Miss Gartside's remarks on the importance of perspective are worthy of the attention of our most distinguished artists. Hurried on by dexterity of handling, by splendid colouring, and sometimes by a force of light and shade, the painter and spectator give way to first impressions; and works are painted, exhibited, and praised, which, if tried in the scale of scientific criticism, would be found greatly wanting. The theory of light and shade, as adapted to flower-painting, is illustrative and useful. With regard to 'colours, and their arrangement in groups,' we might be tempted to differ with the fair writer: in her remarks on their various combinations, an affectation of science appears, which is not in the least necessary to the young practitioner; and professors are well aware that fine colours do not produce fine colouring. The agreeable result is obtained in a picture by what is termed the breaking of colours, and the artful management of cold and warm tones; with a breadth of light and shade, harmonized by what painters have of late agreed to term a *neutral tint*. We do not believe that any good colourist of the English, or of any foreign school, has consulted Dr. Herschel's experiments 'for ascertaining the illuminating and heating power of the rays of the sun,' when forming his composition: nor do we think that pure prismatic colours are admissible in painting, unless in specimens of stained glass. Yet, on the whole, the meed of praise is due to Miss Gartside for her modesty, industry, and taste; and the young ladies, for whom her labours are designed, must profit by an attentive perusal of this essay.

Art.

## POETRY.

Art. 25. *Infancy, or the Management of Children*, a didactic Poem in six Books. The sixth Edition. To which are added Poems not before published. By Hugh Downman, M.D. Exeter. 8vo. pp. 223. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

It will not now be expected that we should take any additional notice of Dr. Downman's well-known didactic poem intitled "*Infancy*," as our readers will recollect that, on the appearance of the first and second books, we devoted two separate articles to a view of their merit; (see M. R. Vol. l. p. 482. and Vol. liii. p. 197.) and that when the work appeared in a completed state, we farther expressed our approbation, in Vol. lxxx. p. 390. It has, to the credit of the author, passed through several editions, and is now reprinted with the addition of some poems written on different occasions; viz. an Address to Peace, 1760, on taking the Havannah, on Genius, and to Independence.

The lines on Genius contain an inquiry into the origin of this singular property, by which one man is so eminently distinguished from another. Dr D. thus proposes the question:

' Say, what is Genius? with the human form  
Is it connate? or is it gain'd by years,  
Like the corporeal efforts? Its prime food  
Is vivid inclination to excell.  
By emulative warmth, and love of fame  
Its growth is cherish'd, industry and toil  
Clothe it in strength and beauty. Oft its powers  
Torpidly slumber, till a fervid ray  
Impell'd by chance, awakens them to life.'

This philosophical poet is of opinion that a completely moulded brain is a necessary foundation for the superstructure of Genius, and that 'nature gives that mechanism of parts to which it owes the very capability of life.'

————— Nature's hand  
Is visible throughout; no force of art,  
No labour, cultivation, fervid hope,  
Industrious effort, can avert the blight  
Of her frugality.— Yet in its birth,  
Genius may be extinguish'd by disease,  
Strangled by poverty, sunk in the dust  
By stern oppression, or by indolence  
Cursed with perpetual barrenness of mind.

' But give the tone of brain; the nerves which bear  
Faithful impressions strong; give the mild sun  
Of opportunity to dart its rays;  
Give leisure, curious search, the strenuous thought  
Aiming at worth superlative, give time  
Which solely perfects wisdom; and the form  
Of Genius will arise, on eagle wing  
To soar to heaven, or with a lynx's eye

To penetrate the abyss, to associate all  
 The charms of beauty, grasp the true sublime,  
 Add novel tints to fancy's rainbow dresse;  
 Or separate the clouds by error spread,  
 Till all the gloom is vanquish'd, and the light  
 Of intellectual day wide-blazing streams.'

'We must be what we can, not what we will,' is very true, but it is not truth in her best poetic garb.

The address to Independence is a portrait of the author's mind. Abjuring servile flattery, and all mean court to 'the many-acred block-head,' Dr. D. asserts the inestimable price of Sincerity, Integrity, and Honour, which are the necessary properties of a truly independent spirit. While he disclaims the idea of purchasing the favour of the great by mean compliances, he endeavours to avoid the imputation of cherishing a morose and unsocial temper.

'Yet Goddess! would I not austere dwell,  
 A solitary Being. While I trample  
 Malice, and spleen, and pride beneath my feet,  
 The good, the just, nay, e'en the rich, and great,  
 If rich in virtue, and if great of soul,  
 Claim, and shall have my reverence. They are form'd  
 For all mankind, I own them form'd for me,  
 Nor would I boast of independence here.'

If Dr. D.'s blank verse should not obtain the praise of being very nervous, it generally flows with ease, and is the vehicle of amiable sentiments.

A striking portrait of Dr. Downman faces the title.

Art. 26. *Sonnets, and other Poems;* to which are added Tales in Prose. Crown 8vo. 4s. Boards. Blacks and Parry. 1805.

From the concluding word of the Latin motto, we should be led to think that this volume was the production of a male writer: but the Dedication and Preface assure us that it proceeds from a lady; and from a lady, who, suspicious of the interference of the men, has suffered her compositions to pass through no other hands than her own. Living in rural retirement, she seems indeed to have so much improved her mind, as to require little assistance from our sex in polishing her Muse. The Sonnets, if not of the first class, are easy and harmonious; and the descriptions of country scenery are improved by the author's knowledge of Botany.—When this lady appealed to our gallantry, we trembled for her: but, when we perused her poems, we thought that she might safely have confided in our justice. Decide, gentle reader, for thyself:

'TO FORTUNE.

'O FORTUNE! changeful as the varying wind,  
 Why should the human heart in thee confide?  
 Thy brittle chain, alas! no virtues bind;  
 Light as the froth that floats upon the tide.  
 Thy smile, the sunbeam of an April morn,

And transient as the drops of dew that swell  
 The cowslip's cup, and tip the blossom'd thorn,  
 Or, quivering, glitter in the lily's bell.  
 Go, fickle goddess, and essay to cheat  
 Some heart that never trusted thee before ;  
 But I so oft have witness'd thy deceit,  
 Thy syren song shall ne'er delude me more :  
 Nor will I at thy wayward frowns repine,  
 While the superior joys of health and peace are mine.\*—

\* WRITTEN IN A WINTER'S MORNING.

'Tho' storms and tempests mark thy gloomy reign,  
 Stern winter! still the poet's eye shall find  
 Full many a charm to linger in thy train,  
 Spread round thy frozen panoply of snow ;  
 In icy chains, each brook and streamlet bind ;  
 Still unappal'd the christmas rose\* shall blow,  
 And beauteous crocuses their golden bloom  
 Disclose, ere yet thy ruthless reign be past ;  
 And bright mezercon breathe its faint perfume,  
 Amid the rigours of thy northern blast :  
 Whilst on the leafless lime pale mistletoe  
 Its wax-like berries hangs, and green of sickly cast.  
 And the sweet redbreast, from his laurel bower,  
 Warbles his vespers clear, at twilight's sober hour.'

The prose of this volume is composed of "such stuff as *novels* are made of." but, unlike most novels, the story is short.—Whatever might have been expected from a cockney writer, we did not imagine that a rural lady, and a botanist, would have intitled a tale *Myrtle Wood*.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 27. *A Description of Prince of Wales Island, in the Straights of Malacca*: with its real and probable Advantages and Sources to recommend it as a Marine Establishment. By Sir Home Popham, Knight of the Sovereign Order of St. John of Jerusalem, Captain in the Royal Navy, and F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 72. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1805.

Sir H. Popham adduces strong facts to shew the necessity of an establishment in our Eastern possessions, such as that which is here proposed. He states that a similar scheme has already been submitted to the consideration of the government of India ; and he leaves us to infer that it was rejected only because a proper station was not selected. From what then transpired, he tells us, it is evident that the expediency of such an establishment, contiguous to the bay of Bengal, was strongly felt. He then enumerates the circumstances which render Prince of Wales island the most eligible situation for the purpose. The risk and heavy expence of heaving down in Bengal,

\* *Helleborus Niger*. This plant, in mild winters and a proper soil, sometimes blows in December.

and the delay of going to Bombay, he observes, have occasioned ships not unfrequently to quit India in a less effective state than was prudent or just; and consequently many lives, and property to a considerable amount, have been lost.

'This island is said to be favourable to health, and to abound with fresh water, and with provisions of every kind: timber for the repairs of shipping is to be found there in abundance, and its soil is favourable to the growth of hemp and of various precious Indian commodities. Sir Home thus recapitulates the considerations on which he builds the conclusion, that the place here pointed out is the most proper situation for an Indian marine establishment:

'I have in this Memoir endeavoured, and I trust not unsuccessfully, to prove that Bombay, however proper for a Marine Establishment in one state of English Commerce and Settlements in India, no longer continues to be the fittest place for our principal Port; that the extensive possessions acquired by the Company on the *Eastern Coast*, and in adjacent countries, render an *Eastern* the most advantageous side for a Marine Establishment; that the causes which rendered Mr. Lacam's attempt to establish a Port on the Ganges ineffectual, are of permanent operation, and will prevent the success of every experiment of the kind on any branch of that river; that Prince of Wales Island, from its Harbour, its Roads, its Materials for Ship-building, its contiguity to the scene of Naval Operations, is the position most completely adapted for a Naval Yard, securely fortified; that by the fertility of its soil, its productions, and its climate, it affords the means of subsistence, and the probability of health; that from its central situation, and command of the Straights of Malacca, it would be a Mart for the interchange of the Commodities of the Eastern and Western India; that thus it would increase private Riches and public Revenue; that in the natural course of British industry, skill, and ability, it would monopolize the Trade with China and the opulent intermediate Countries, to Malacca and Sumatra, and as I have previously observed, be an Emporium for the Commerce of the Eastern part of Southern Asia, subordinate to London, which would become an Emporium for the whole:

'I flatter myself I have also shewn, that its Military and Political advantages are of the highest importance; that a Force may be there stationed without the expence of sending Soldiers from Europe, or the danger of weakening our Indian Armies, which will secure the Establishment, protect and extend Trade, advance the internal prosperity; consequently the external power and advantage of the Colony; and that the very same means which will attain the most important Military, Commercial, and Political ends; that the very causes which will enrich and aggrandize the Nation, will meliorate the situation and character of numerous individuals; and lastly, that the sources of Prosperity and Power will be the sources of Virtue and Happiness.'

The Preface to this pamphlet bears the date of 1759, but the title-page expresses that it was not published till the present year. We have not lately heard whether the formation of a marine establishment at this island, which was so far commenced under the auspices of Lord Melville that many appointments *with large salaries* were announced, has been carried into farther effect.

Art.

- Art. 28. *A few Observations tending to expose the Unfairness of some Censures on the Character of David Sands*, in a Publication called "A Narrative of Events that have lately taken place in Ireland, among the Society called Quakers," &c. 8vo. pp. 14. 3d. Printed by Darton. 1804.

David Sands appears to have been the champion of the antient maxims of conduct, of the antient prudence, and of the antient religious principles of the brethren, in opposition to the innovations which wrought the late schism in Ireland. (See p. 179. of this Review.) David, we suspect, under the name of a friend, defends himself against the accusations of the separatists, in a temper and spirit which are creditable to the man, but not very consistent with the Quaker. According to him, he has contributed not a little to save the Quaker Church of Ireland from becoming a prey to Philistines, its enemies: and his opponents are charged with being followers of Paine, and disciples of infidelity. The extract subjoined will give an idea of the tenets of the Irish seceders from the Quaker Church.

We are told that one of their leaders, called Abraham Shackleton publicly declared, in the Yearly Meeting held at Dublin, his disbelief of the Pentateuch, and of great part both of the Old and New Testaments; to which sentiments the schismatics generally accorded: and he actually submitted to the inspection of David Sands, a book which he called his Bible, of his own compilation, mutilated from the original text, at the pleasure of a perverted mind, and calculated to establish, as far as it could be made, human doctrines instead of divine. These partisans are, however, artful enough to express their ideas on some leading points, so much like believers, that it is difficult to discover their real sentiments, without a particular experience of their evasive conversation. They speak of Christ as others do, in the character of a Saviour; but, according to them, the apostles were equally Saviours; they acknowledge the divinity of Christ, but they give the same divinity to every immortal spirit.

Abraham Shackleton appears to be the Goliath of the enemy's camp! the whole of which, together with its champion, if we believe David, he has discomfited.

- Art. 29. *Buonaparteana; or Sketches to serve for an Inquiry into the Virtues of the Buonaparte Family*: contained in a number of curious and authentic Anecdotes, never before published. With an Appendix, containing Extracts from a Moral Work suppressed by Buonaparte. 12mo. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1804.

The anonymous author of this volume asserts that he has derived his information from the most authentic sources, and protests that he has been most scrupulously observant of rigid impartiality and veracity. It is not within our power to try him by the rule of fact; and we can only present to our readers a few of the anecdotes here sketched which seem to be most novel.

The sternest despotism, that was ever known, exhibited not more harsh proceedings than those which are here detailed:

The feelings of an Englishman must necessarily revolt, at the peevish and summary mode of proceeding in France, in cases of

Libel;

Libel; contrasted with the slow, and comparatively indulgent process of the laws in his own country. Behold the modern manner of crushing a French journal:—

‘A guard of soldiers enters the printing-office, seizes all the materials used for the publication of the print; and affixing on the doors an impress of the great seal of the State, forbids, under the penalties of the law, any further exercise of printing in that office, until the Government be *graciously* pleased to grant its permission. This indulgence but very rarely occurs.’

‘Thus, by a tyrannical stroke of military power, if the existence of the individual whose property is confiscated, depends on the sale of his paper, he becomes at once reduced to irremediable distress,—to destruction.’

The old government of France was perhaps the most tainted with corruption of any in Europe: but we question whether it could furnish an instance of extortion more offensive than this:

‘An American gentleman, of respectability, a warm partizan of the French Revolution, upon its original principles, had, in rendering services to France, of a very extensive description, expended a large fortune, accumulated by honourable industry in commercial concerns.

‘The justice of his claims, (which were for upwards of 5,000,000 of livres tournois,) was never questioned by any of the preceding governments; and they were admitted by the Consulate, with a degree of candor which seemed to promise a speedy liquidation.

‘After waiting for some time, for a written communication upon the subject of his affairs, he called upon the Minister of Marine repeatedly; but received no other satisfaction, than polite interviews, and flattering promises. In the mean time his necessities became so very pressing, that he communicated them to a friend, who was in the habits sometimes of visiting Buonaparte; and constantly at the Bureau of his Secretary *Maret*.

‘This friend mentioned the business to *Maret*, who promised to lay the affair before the First Consul, and to obtain for the American a definitive answer in three days.

‘The period elapsed, and the latter was punctual in his attendance at the Bureau. The answer was favourable; the first payment was arranged, and he was presented with a *Mandat*, for 15,000 livres. “But,” added the Secretary, “there is a certain degree of *etiquette* to be observed, before you can *touch*: this is drawn upon the Minister of Marine, you must give a *petite cadeau*, (little present,) to his confidential favourite.”

“My present circumstances,” replied the American, “suggest the propriety of acceding to this preliminary, at all events.” He was then referred to this confidential favourite of the citizen *Forfait*, minister of the Marine, and Colonies.

‘The Reader, no doubt, anticipates in this *favourite*, some usurious wretch,—animated by the sordid spirit of avarice: the dictates of Truth must be obeyed. Behold, in the person of a beautiful female, that character which the fancy has depicted! This courtesan exacted for her smile of approbation, the *modest* sum of 1,000 livres.’

This little volume is dedicated to Mr. Sheridan in the most complimentary strain.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

• To the MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

• GENTLEMEN,

• When, after tedious delay and much interruption, "The Experimental Inquiry into the Nature and Propagation of Heat" was at last on the point of issuing from the press, I judged it expedient, in consequence of a hint received from London, to ascertain distinctly my claims, by interweaving a short narrative in the preface. I soon found that I had done right; for, in the space of a few weeks, came out Count Rumford's Paper, "On the Nature of Heat, and the mode of its Communication," which betrayed such a close resemblance, that the public could not fail to mark it with surprise and suspicion. I was repeatedly pressed by my friends to bring forward whatever could throw light on the cause of this odd coincidence. But, conscious of the solidity of my pretensions, I was averse from engaging in controversy, and unwilling to appear over-anxious about reputation. In this resolution I was confirmed by the spontaneous vote of the Council of the Royal Society, who did me the honour last spring of awarding the Rumford Medals. I learnt, indeed, not long since, that the Count had republished his Memoir at Paris, accompanied with an elaborate display of dates and circumstances. Yet I should have still preserved silence, but for the letter inserted in your Number for August last; which, in my humble opinion, so far from removing the doubts entertained, really tends in a considerable degree to increase our reasonable suspicions.—I would beg the indulgence of your readers, while I state some facts as briefly as possible:

My researches in hygrometry had early led me to consider AIR as the proper vehicle of heat and moisture. I was curious to trace the analogy; which I have since found to be complete in all its parts. Circumstances having fixed my residence for the season in the immediate vicinity of London, I chanced, in the beginning of 1801, to meet with a mirror of uncommon size, that tempted me to project inquiries connected with my speculations on the subject of heat. I wanted to try, whether the aerial reflections were not enfeebled by the softness of the refringent surface and the proximity of the limits of contact. This idea proved a fertile source of discovery; and having once got into the right channel, I proceeded with ease and confidence. But I was chiefly indebted to the application of the Differential Thermometer, which I had invented six years before, and whose construction I had lately modified, with the view of adapting it to a greater variety of objects. Before the end of April, I had at intervals traced out the principal facts, in a rough way indeed, yet I will venture to say more correctly than was done by my rival, according to his own statement, two years afterwards at Munich; for besides his general inaccuracy in estimating the relative effects, it will be perceived that the Count, drawn away by some loose hypotheses, has entirely mistaken the properties of water and glass with regard to heat. But I was not satisfied till the facts had acquired both extension and geometrical precision. Having provided a suitable apparatus, I came down to my retreat in Pifeshire, where, during the summer and autumn, I was intent in prosecuting these inquiries. Near the close of the year I paid a visit to Edinburgh, and mentioned the more striking experiments to a learned friend, at whose suggestion they were successfully repeated at the Christmas vacation in the neighbourhood of that city. Before the spring of 1802, I had composed the first eleven chapters, and sketched out materials for the rest of my book. With this manuscript and a small concentrated apparatus, I repaired in the month of June to London, where I stayed till August, and then passed  
over

over to France. There I was still less reserved in my communications than I had been in London. I related my leading experiments to Gayton and Laplace, who urged me to present them to the National Institute; but which I declined, after I had witnessed the mode of proceeding in that crowded and not very decorous assembly. However, I made no scruple to show the little apparatus, and even to lend the manuscript, to several persons of my acquaintance, both natives and foreigners. And I am authorized to assert that my discoveries on heat were known to Count R.'s most intimate friends at Paris, and even frequently mentioned at that time in their philosophical conversations.

On my return in December, I set the printer immediately to work, and hastened down to Scotland, where I was engaged not only in completing the copy, but in pushing some farther inquiries. I experienced however such multiplied delays, that my book was full sixteen months in the press. In the meanwhile, Count Rumford began those experiments in their nature entirely different from any which he had before instituted. He soon obtained some general results; and with his usual diligence and promptitude, he dispatched notice of the event to his correspondents all over Europe. About two months afterward, my *Differential Thermometer*, which he honoured by adopting for his own, and which he likewise graced with another name, was carried by him in a sort of triumphal march from Munich to Geneva, and from Geneva to Paris; where, I am informed, it is placed in a state of permanent exhibition at the house of his friend Madame Lavoisier.

With respect to the Count's letter, it seems to be a very extraordinary production. Why all those asseverations? The proposition in a matter of scientific dispute to take an *oath of purgation* before a magistrate is, I presume, altogether an original fancy. No person surely will be so cruel as to put that ardent philosopher to such a harsh and severe trial. But the Count expresses his readiness to declare by a legal and solemn oath that he had *no knowledge whatever* of my *differential thermometer*, except what he had acquired *by reading the different scientific publications in which my name has appeared*. Now it happens rather unfortunately that these very publications, and particularly Nicholson's Journal for the year 1800, contain not only an account of the theory of the instrument in question, but describe some varieties of its construction and mode of application. After such a glaring instance of treacherous memory, it is natural to suppose that the public will be inclined to judge the rest of the Count's allegations by the laws of human probability. If we give implicit credit to his proffered oath, we must believe, that notwithstanding his active correspondence, he remained utterly ignorant of what was known to his friends in Paris and London at least half a year before; and that, in spite of strong appearances to the contrary, he would have disdained to take advantage of any little hints conveyed to him.

16th Oct. 1805.

JOHN LESLIE.

*Docilis* will have the goodness to excuse our non-compliance with "the prayer of his petition," because it is wholly extra-official, and because it is (as he observes) 'of a very delicate nature.'

'An old Correspondent' is informed that the object of his request is now out of date.

The APPENDIX to Vol. XLVII. of the Monthly Review was published with the Number for September, on the first of October.

\*. In the Rev. for Sept. p. 30. l. 28. for 'following-piece,' read, *following-piece*.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1805.

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ART. I. *Travels in Europe, Asia Minor, and Arabia.* By J. Griffiths, M.D., Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, and of several foreign Literary Societies. 4to. pp. 416. 1l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1805.

AN inclination for travelling frequently originates in a spirit of restlessness, which prompts even the indolent and thoughtless to vary the monotony of their existence, and to relieve the pressure of vacant hours by a rapid succession of new objects. For the credit of our species, however, this propensity may also be often traced to rational and praise-worthy motives, to a steady love of knowledge, and to a desire of profiting by extended and multiplied observation. When the latter principles predominate in a vigorous and ingenious mind, many sacrifices will be made, and many expedients devised, to ensure scope to their duly regulated exercise. Of this remark, the present narrative affords a recent exemplification. The author, at an early age, availing himself of the goodness of an indulgent parent, and of his own talents and resources, appears to have generously yielded to the impulse of a strong but laudable curiosity, and to have wandered far from home in quest of that information which books and colleges so inadequately impart to the votaries of seclusion.

In June 1785, Dr. Griffiths embarked at Gravesend, in a vessel bound to Italy and Smyrna. Scarcely has he glanced at the roguery and exactions of pilots and port-residents, when we find him tumbling about in the Bay of Biscay; and, in the next sentence or two, in defiance of baffling winds, fishing for Bonito in the Straits of Gibraltar. At Nice, where he passed ten days, he found the urbanity of the French agreeably blended with the social disposition of the Italians. Genoa, the next subject of his remarks, presents a striking contrast of magnificence and wretchedness. Amid a crowd of squalid and degraded prisoners, one who counted not fewer than twenty-seven years of captivity particularly attracted the writer's attention.

tention. 'He seemed about sixty-five years old—his flowing beard was whitened by misfortune; and his sullen deportment indicated the rooted antipathy he so justly entertained against his inhuman Christian tormentors! Such was his prejudice, that he treated with contempt the trifling assistance I was disposed to offer him; and allowed it to remain upon the ground untouched, without even condescending to acknowledge it by the slightest gesture.'

Quitting the doleful regions of prisons and galleys,—where, by a refinement of cruelty, a Christian is chained to a Turk, and the term of hard labour is protracted on slight pretexts,—we pass to a medical probationer, whose English pronunciation of Latin had nearly cost him his Doctor's degree. Fortunately, he had presence of mind to request that the examination might be conducted in writing, 'which proved so creditable to our worthy countryman, that he has ever since enjoyed a reputation to which his talents and abilities most justly entitle him.' It is added, in a note, 'the Scotch, from the classic propriety with which they pronounce the Latin, are not exposed to similar mortifications on the continent; and it is seriously to be hoped that the method which prevails in Scotland will be generally adopted in England.' That considerations of *convenience* may plead in favour of such adoption, we are willing to admit: but the genuine pronunciation of the language of antient Rome is probably lost for ever.

Dr. G., who is no satirist, takes some pains to rescue the Genoese from those vague and proverbial charges of general depravity, which are usually as unfounded as they are disgusting, and which one dull writer unfeelingly copies from another.

Leghorn, Pisa, and St. Julian's baths suggest only a few cursory remarks: but the benevolent reader will dwell with satisfaction on the account of the liberal provision which is made for the poor of Italy. The convents seldom withhold 'a sort of daily aid;' the want of a certificate or recommendation excludes not the afflicted from large and richly endowed asylums; nor are patients discharged, 'because excess of wretchedness being their portion, they are pronounced incurable.'

'In dwelling upon the excellence of the Italian hospitals,' says Dr. G., 'I do not wish it to be understood, that I hold such establishments, or the facility with which they may be entered, as a superior consideration in favour of the poor, to those regulations, in a general view, which have been adopted under the head of the Poor Laws in England; nor am I unconscious that, by the laws of England, every poor person, without the means of subsistence, inherits a right to support from his parish; that every magistrate is bound to convey

convey to such parish the afflicted wretch discharged from an hospital, and that such arrangements have been made by the laws of the land, as humanity and justice could devise for the benefit of the distressed, so that parochial assistance should prevent the misery of dying from actual want of food. I am perfectly aware of all these advantages in England; but I still contend, that the sick man, who finds his misery a sufficient recommendation to ensure the attentions of medical men, and the means of support, so long as he shall require them, is infinitely more fortunate than the sick man who, in consequence of the probably incurable nature of his complaints, is discharged from an English hospital, to be transferred from one end of the island to the other upon a waggon, because none but his own parish is compelled to support him.

‘I contend, that those hospitals are to be preferred, where every day is a *receiving* day, to those whose gates are opened to the recommendatory letter of a subscriber only once in the week; and where, even on that day, the amount of the subscription is often considered of more importance than the disease of the patient, provided that disease be not of the most serious nature; in which case, I allow, that the humanity of our truly respectable physicians and surgeons always overbalances the pecuniary interests of the establishment.

‘I am aware, that cases of accidents are received at all times, without recommendation, at all our hospitals; but is John with an intermittent fever on Thursday less an object of compassion than on the Wednesday following, which I will presume, for the sake of argument, the established receiving day? Is William with an ascites, or Thomas with an erysipelatous inflammation, less entitled, by the severity of their sufferings, to an immediate endeavour at relief, than Richard, who has been thrown from his horse, and fractured his fibula?

‘If it be pleaded, that the funds of our hospitals will not afford such general and indiscriminate admission of patients, and that, were every invalid to be received without formality, the establishments must be ruined, my observations are correct. Happy, I repeat, in *this particular*, is the country where the afflicted poor may be at all times well provided for by the benevolence of the rich, without waiting for a letter of recommendation, or a receiving day!’

Much as we are disposed to applaud the unbiassed philanthropy of these sentiments, we would distinguish between receptacles of the sick, and those of the merely indigent. The multiplication of poor-houses, and the indiscriminate facility of admission to their privileges, present strong temptations to idleness, and attract a crowd of paupers to the districts in which they are situated, without diminishing the legal rates which are levied on the public. These rates, in some cases, have been obviously augmented in consequence of additional charitable institutions. Indeed, we cannot too often repeat, that an adequate and unexceptionable provision for the poor is one of the most delicate problems in political œconomy.

From Leghorn our traveller proceeded by Sicily and some of the islands of the Archipelago, to Smyrna; where the opulent English merchants and the foreign consuls indulge in a style of elegance which partakes of Asiatic luxury. At a public dinner at the English consul's, the whole of the company rose after the first course, and removed to another apartment, in which a splendid second course was already displayed; 'and, as had been practised at the first table, the name of each guest was written and laid on the plate opposite to the chair on which it was intended he should be seated.'

After a month's residence at Smyrna, Dr. G. embarked in a Turkish boat, or *kaik*, for Constantinople. As he waited for a fair wind at Temnos, he had an opportunity of contemplating the simple ceremony of a village funeral:

'A man much respected by his companions had died suddenly:—he was borne by four men upon a kind of hurdle to the cemetery, his face uncovered, and accompanied by a few friends, who each held a bough of cypress.—The *Imaum*, who preceded the body, occasionally uttered some sentences from the Koran; and repeating a few others at the grave, the body was interred. As soon as the grave was filled up, each friend planted a sprig of the cypress he had brought on the right, and a second on the left hand of the deceased, and then took his leave. Upon inquiry as to the motive of their planting branches of cypress, one of the followers gravely told me, it was to ascertain by their growth whether the deceased would enjoy the happiness promised by Mahommed to all true believers, or whether he would for ever be denied the bliss of the *Houris*. The former would occur, should the sprig on the right hand take root, and the latter would be ascertained if the left only should flourish: if both succeeded, the deceased would be greatly favored in the next world; or if both failed, he would be tormented by black angels, until, through the mediation of the prophet, he should be rescued from their persecutions.'

The Doctor's observations on the capital of the Ottoman Empire bespeak the same good sense which reigns throughout his relation: but they are not new, and therefore need not detain us. His reflections on the cruel treatment experienced by the Jews evidently proceed from an enlightened mind and a feeling heart.

In reviewing the civil and military resources of the government of Turkey, Dr. G. acknowledges his obligations to his friend Mr. Eton\*, whose work supersedes many pages of the present performance. We are, however, assured that the greatest part of what is now offered to the public was written many years before Mr. Eton's book made its appearance, and

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\* Survey of the Turkish Empire, see Rev. Vol. xxvii. N.S. p. 156.

that nothing has been borrowed without a mark of quotation. As the present statements are not at variance with those of writers of reputation, and as, in the progress of our critical labours, we have had frequent occasion to advert to the evils of Turkish ignorance and despotism, we may be excused if we decline to retrace the features of such an odious picture. We shall therefore only direct the reader's attention to the account of securing property by *wakfs*, or donations to mosques; which is treated with much perspicuity, and unfolds a striking view of systematic oppression.

Being disappointed of a proper conveyance to the Crimea, the author resolved to return to Smyrna, in the prospect of visiting that part of Asia Minor which has been least explored by modern travellers. On the small but beautiful island of Avezza, he fortunately met with the Captain of a Russian brig, bound for Smyrna, with the intention of touching at Mytelene and Scio. He therefore very gladly relinquished his uncomfortable and even dangerous quarters in a Turkish boat, and felt no small satisfaction in being again admitted into Christian Society.

As the vessel anchored at Koumkalé, the opportunity of even a hasty glimpse of the Troad was not to be neglected. The result of a rambling visit was a concurrence in the leading sentiments of M. Chevalier, which have latterly derived other respectable confirmation.

Between Mytelene and Scio, the Russian and his crew were, during five days, tossed about at the mercy of the winds and waves. As they were, to all appearance, driving against the pointed rocks of Ipsora, 'cries and clamors were heard from stem to stern;—orders, intreaties, prayers, were of no avail;—the affrighted crew, and still more affrighted captain, dropped upon their knees, and, offering their supplications to heaven, relinquished the probable efficacy of human effort. Not so the steady mate; who, bred up during five years on board a seventy-four gun ship under the manly courage and authority of British tars, preserved his composure; and judging that, by hauling up the mainsail, we should drive less towards the shore, and accomplish our object of weathering the island, urged the manœuvre so effectually by oaths and blows, that the timid seamen abandoned their saints, executed whatever he directed, and soon afterwards anchored our bark in a harbour secure from every tempest.'

From Smyrna the Doctor again took his departure, accompanied by a young Swedish gentleman, who was equally solicitous with himself to visit Aleppo, notwithstanding the difficulties and dangers inseparable from the journey. Having

agreed with the proprietor of some horses, who had engaged to convey merchandise to the Syrian capital, and having assumed the dress of the country, to avoid superfluous molestation, they commenced their harassing route, under the conduct of their *caravan-bashee*, or leader. On the fourth day, they reached Sart, the antient Sardis, now an inconsiderable assemblage of clay huts, which shelter a few wretches from the inclemency of the weather. Fragments of former magnificence lie scattered in various directions, but most of them greatly defaced. At Allah-Sheer, the antient Philadélphia, a considerable population is supported by the manufacture of coarse cottons and carpets; and by the art of dyeing, which is said to be better understood in this town than in most parts of the neighbouring country. In many places on the road, the travellers had noticed storks' nests on the tops of houses and other buildings: 'but there appeared to be an unusual number at Allah-Sheer; a circumstance of considerable import to the credulous Turk, who believes that the house or town which this bird selects for its temporary residence, is peculiarly favoured and fortunate.' In the suburbs, were many flocks of sheep, with ponderous tails.

On quitting Allah-Sheer, they entered the province of Phrygia, and proceeded through an immense tract of country, mostly inhabited by hordes of vagrant Turcomans. In this district, and on the banks of the Marsyas, lies the antient Apamea; consisting, like the preceding town, of houses constructed with clay, which is sometimes intermixed with pebbles. The Apameans are chiefly occupied in the wool-trade.

Having passed many fine patches of land, condemned to neglect, and villages almost wholly depopulated, the travellers, on their approach to Koniah, came within the sphere of depredation which had been for some time exercised by an Agah and his ferocious banditti. The feeble caravan escaped not the vigilance of these desperadoes, one of whom rode full gallop after the author:

'It required no common share of address or good fortune to avoid being trampled upon by his impetuous charger. Exerting myself to evade the strokes he aimed at me with his sabre, I continued to run round a bush large enough to secure me, but not sufficiently so to allow his horse to turn immediately near it. He continued to approach me frequently; and was beyond measure exasperated at my success in escaping from his attempts to wound me. I should certainly have fallen a victim to his fury, had not the old Hadgee cried out loudly, that I was a young infidel, to whom he had sworn protection on his faith: and that every right of hospitality would be injured, were I not allowed to depart without insult or molestation.—Russian as my pursuer was, he could not resist this powerful appeal to the established

blished customs of his country! He knew the sacred nature of the Hadgee's oath; and in the spirit of true Islamism abandoned the object of his immediate vengeance, rather than violate a practice which even a *Kurd* is taught from his infancy to respect. -- Giving over his pursuit, he returned to his companion, and renewed his exactions with unrelenting fury.'

After various mishaps, the party arrived, with jaded spirits, at the celebrated city of Koniah, the Iconium of the antients, and capital of Lycaonia. Even at this day, it is regarded as the principal mart of the interior of Asia Minor, and is under the jurisdiction of a Pashah, who usually enjoys great influence at the Porte. It is also the establishment of the Mewlewahs, a very strict order of dervises, whose mortifications and ceremonies are here detailed, chiefly from the narrative of d'Ohsson. (See Rev. Vol. ii. N. S. p. 165.)

Between Koniah and Erekle, lay a romantic plain, at the north side of which a tribe of Turcomans had encamped:

'Being in absolute want of milk,' says the author, 'I determined to solicit the assistance of these Turcomauns. Approaching their tents, therefore, with gradual step and apparent indifference, I passed several, without observing any probability of succeeding; children only were to be seen near the spot where I was, and men with their flocks of sheep and goats at a certain distance. Advancing still farther, I saw a woman, at the entrance of a small tent, occupied in domestic employment. Convinced that an appeal to the feelings of the female sex, offered with decency, by a man distressed with hunger, would not be rejected, I held out my empty wooden bowl, and, reversing it, made a salutation according to the forms of the country, urging my suit by gestures. The kind Turcomauness covered her face precipitately, and retired within the tent. She was alone—I did not advance a step until that curiosity, which it were ungracious in me to disapprove, induced her to peep, from behind her coarse retreat. She saw me unassuming:—my inverted bowl still explained my wants; and a salutation repeated seemed to be addressed to her hospitality.—The timidity of her sex, the usages of her country, and even the fear of danger, gave way to the benevolence of her heart. She went into the tent again, returned speedily with a bowl of milk, and, advancing towards me with a glance more than half-averted, filled my bason to the brim, and vanished. Her conduct was a confirmation of all I had heard or read in favour of the sex's humanity, and strengthened my reliance upon the female heart during the remainder of my travels, where any act of kindness was required amongst barbarians unconscious of the laws of hospitality. Need I add, my appeals have never been disappointed.'

This passage powerfully recalls the simple but beautiful encomium of the African traveller Ledyard on the female character. (See *Proceedings of the African Association*. Rev. Vol. ii. N. S. p. 64.)

Erekleë, formerly Heraclea, is now a poor place, inhabited by Turks, one of whom had the address to deprive the author of his watch. Farther south, a rich soil promised abundance to the husbandman: but the bounties of nature were neglected, and scarcely a vestige could be traced of the ancient cities of Cilicia.

Having traversed some hilly and rocky ground, the caravan, on the thirty-first day from its departure, descended into a plain which still indicates the original name and situation of Adana, occupied by five or six thousand souls, and, with the exception of Koniah, the most considerable place which had occurred on the route from Smyrna. From Adana, the travellers proceeded to Caradash, and sailed across to Swediah, a village on the coast of Syria. In their progress to Antioch, they were frequently annoyed by parties of Kurds; who, like the Turcomans, omit no opportunity of levying exactions on all travellers who fall in their way. 'It is generally believed that they first migrated from the mountains of the Greater Armenia, or what is now called Kurd-estaun, where they inhabit a certain number of villages, and from whence upwards of one hundred thousand of them are dispersed in various parts of the neighbouring countries; leading a wandering life, breeding cattle, and plundering whenever an opportunity presents itself.'

At Martavaun, Dr. G. found that the reports of former travellers, concerning the hospitality of the men and *women*, were not exaggerated. The inhabitants of this and of the neighbouring village of Tefteen are said to be a sect of the Ansarians, a peculiar tribe, and who profess very extraordinary tenets.

Passing over the description of Aleppo, which differs in no material respects from the recitals of former travellers, we shall next attend the author on his romantic progress through the desert to Bussorah, at a season the least propitious to such an arduous undertaking. The entreaties of his intimate friend, Mr. H., a resident at Aleppo, whose affairs urged him to proceed to India without delay, easily induced him to share the fatigues and the perils of the journey:

'Mr. H. was married to one of the most beautiful and most amiable of women, "such as youthful poets fancy when they love," by whom he had two daughters; the eldest about seven, the youngest little more than two years of age. To leave them all, and visit a far distant, and to him a new country, without bearing about him some portion of his treasure, was to my friend impossible; he therefore pleaded with his lovely wife, and obtained a reluctant acquiescence, to his taking with him the eldest.

(Mariannë

'Marianne was a child of uncommon quickness of comprehension, and of most retentive memory. At the tender age of seven years she spoke fluently the Arabic, Greek, French, Italian, and English languages. Her manners were peculiarly engaging; and, in common with all who knew her, I soon felt myself much attached to her. How infinitely more dear to me became this sweet companion of my sufferings will be easily believed!

'Our party consisted of Mr. H. Miss Marianne, myself, and an Armenian servant named Joanaes.

'The first division of the caravan was formed of about eighty camels, and between thirty or forty guards. Other camels, amongst which many were destined for Bagdad, joining us before we took our final departure, the whole number approached two hundred.'

The caravan commenced its march at a quarter past eleven o'clock in the night of the 8th of June 1786. The 'usual mode of proceeding was to set out about two o'clock in the morning, and continue travelling until nine, ten, or eleven, when an encampment was formed for the day; but it several times occurred that we were obliged to go on until five or six o'clock in the evening; and the fatigue of those days is not easy to be described.' During the first eight days, little occurred worthy of notice, except the appearance of straggling horsemen, antelopes, jerboas, and hares. Of the two latter, not a few were sacrificed to the accommodation of the caravan, the Arabs being very expert in killing them with clubs. The soil was sometimes a reddish brown, or white sand, and sometimes sand intermixed with clay, or covered with salt.—At Mesched Ali, a violent desire of penetrating into the interior of the renowned tomb of the prophet Ali had nearly proved fatal to the journalist. Taking advantage of the drowsy disposition of the Mussulmans on each side of the entrance of the mosque, and stimulated by irresistible curiosity, he hastily advanced into the outer court. An elegant fountain, a profusion of Arabic sentences, and a corridor round the area, were here the principal objects which presented themselves. The interior of the mosque is chiefly remarkable for the dome, (which, though handsome, is by no means so large as that of St. Paul's Cathedral,) ornamental balls of ivory, glass, ostriches' eggs, very small but rich carpets, two huge silver candlesticks, and a prodigious number of lamps.

'Apprehension of discovery now began to operate upon me, and I traced back my steps with caution, greatly dissatisfied at having found nothing extraordinary; but, before I could repass the gate, an old man started up, and called to me in Persian. Not receiving any answer, he awakened two others; when they all jumped from the elevated part where they had been sleeping, and exclaimed most vehemently. One of them, armed with a scimitar (fortunately for me

me not unsheathed), and another with a short stick, made many blows at me; which parrying in the best manner I was able, although not so successfully as I could have wished, I dashed through these bearded heroes, and was assailed in my flight by many large stones, of which, for many days, I bore the marks.'

Notwithstanding this risk, and the kind reproaches of his friend, the Dr. felt a secret satisfaction at having accomplished what, most probably, no European had ever before attempted.

We regret that our limits do not allow us to pursue the remainder of this interesting volume in detail. A serious want of water, and the recurrence of suffocating winds, began to manifest their direful effects, particularly on Mr. H. At length, they approached the long expected wells:

'Willing to communicate the glad tidings to my friend, I rode to him, and expressed my hope that he would be soon refreshed by a supply of water. He replied, "Thank God! but I am almost dead." I endeavoured to cheer his spirits; and then urging my horse, advanced to the spot where I observed the camels were collecting together. In about half an hour I found myself amongst a circle of animals greedily contending for a draught of muddy water, confined in a small superficial well about five feet in diameter. Pressing to the edge, I laid myself upon my belly, and by means of my hand supplied myself with a fluid, which, however filthy in itself, and contaminated by the disgusting mouths of as many camels and men as could reach it, was a source of indescribable gratification. It is wholly out of the power of language to convey any idea of the blissful enjoyment of obtaining water after an almost total want of it during eight and forty hours, in the scorching regions of an Arabian desert in the month of July!

'But this moment of gratification was soon succeeded by one of peculiar horror and anxiety. Scarcely had I quenched my thirst before Mr. H.'s camel arrived. I flew with a bowl full of water to my friend; who drank but little of it, and in great haste. Alas! it was his last draught! His lovely child too, eagerly moistened her mouth of roses, blistered by the noxious blast!

'With difficulty Joannes and myself supported my feeble friend to where the tent had been thrown down from the camel's back. He stammered out a question respecting the time of the day; to which I answered it was near four: and requesting the Arabs to hold over him part of the tent (to pitch it required too much time), I unpacked as speedily as possible our liquor-chest, and hastened to offer him some Visnee (a kind of cherry brandy): but Nature was too much exhausted! I sat down, and receiving him in my arms, repeated my endeavours to engage him to swallow a small portion of the liqueur. All human efforts were vain! Gust after gust of pestilential air dried up the springs of life, and he breathed his last upon my bosom!

'Let the reader of sensibility reflect upon the concomitant circumstances which attended this afflicting scene, and then refer to the sensations which will be created in his own breast, to form some idea

of those which must have lacerated mine ! Let him paint to himself a traveller, of an age alive to every feeling, in the midst of the Desert of Arabia, with the corpse of his respected friend, burnt to the appearance of a cinder, black yet warm, on one side of him ; and on the other the daughter of that friend, the most angelic child that Nature ever formed, unconscious of her loss, and with the prattle of innocence inquiring " where her dear papa was gone to ? " It was a scene as little to be supported as described ; and the honest tears I shed bore ample testimony to the wounded sensibility of my heart.'

Other painful circumstances we must repress. Although the Euphrates removed all apprehension of distressing thirst, the heat in one instance amounted to 132 of Fahrenheit's thermometer, under the tent, and to 156, in the sun's rays. The interesting Marianne supported the severe trials of this exhausting pilgrimage with a patience and cheerfulness which astonished her fellow sufferers. On the noon of the forty-eighth day from their leaving Aleppo, the caravan halted at Bussorah.

Towards the conclusion of his narrative, Dr. G. bears ample testimony to the hospitality and dignified deportment of the Arabs of the Desert. As the duties exacted by Shaiks on the transit of goods have been recognized from time immemorial by public avowal, or tacit acquiescence, any attempt to evade the tribute is presumed to imply the right of seizure, or confiscation ; and, in these circumstances, the plundering of a caravan is not supposed to derogate from a reputation for honesty. A state of war between two tribes is likewise reckoned sufficient to authorize depredation : but this, it is justly observed, is the general effect produced by war.

From Bussorah, Dr. G. proceeded to Bombay, where he forgot his fatigues in the society of the most affectionate of brothers.

If this volume of travels, of which we have thus rapidly sketched the outline, contains little information that is new, it is at least composed with spirit, and breathes the language of candid, humane, and honourable sentiments. In so far as it attests the uniform baseness of the Turkish character, it is a valuable record ; because it confirms, by a conspicuous example, the melancholy but important truth, that ignorance, prejudice, and fanaticism reduce mankind to the lowest state of degradation. Lest the picture should be reckoned overcharged, the author reminds us, in his preface, that he traversed a great part of the Ottoman dominions in the humble disguise of a poor Greek ; not under the protection of Janissaries, the influence of ambassadors, or the authority of a Firmaun \*.

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\* \* Passport, or order, sealed by the Grand Signior, to which great respect is paid in most parts of the Turkish dominions.'

' I have

'I have seen Turks,' continues he, 'of all ranks and of all manners, undisguised by the etiquette of high life, divested of fear from superior power, and uninfluenced by the caution of self-interest; I have associated with officers in eminent stations at the Porte, and joined a pedestrian party of menial servants; and I have found the Turk every where a Turk. Their civilities are offered with the insult of superiority; their protection granted under an injunction of their law, not on account of any one principle of humanity or kindness to the *Keupeg* \* they succour; and their own comfort or convenience was never sacrificed, on the score of hospitality, in favour of an infidel †.'

We are ignorant of the motives which have induced the writer to *double* the term of the Horatian precept—*nonum prematur in annum* :—but we learn, with satisfaction, that these travels are intended only as a prelude to a more extensive and elaborate work on various regions of India, in which the author resided during some years, and enjoyed opportunities peculiarly favourable for investigation.—The present publication is illustrated by a map of his route, and views of Constantinople, of the mosques of Sta. Sophia and Sultan Ahmed, and of the death of the author's travelling companion in the desert.—An Index is wanting.

ART. II. *The Triumph of Music; a Poem, in Six Cantos.* By William Hayley, Esq. 4to. pp. 148. 1os. 6d. Boards. Payne. 1804.

*SOLVE senescentem, maturè sanus, equum*, has been the advice of Critics to Poets, ever since the time of Horace. If Homer shone with less fire in his *Odyssey*, and Milton in his *Paradise Regained*, what wonder can there be that Mr. Hayley's Pegasus should break down after repeated heats? In the present work, he not only halts, but seems completely foundered; and we doubt whether he will ever again be able to canter through a Sonnet, or the dedication of a Fable-book. Our readers must remember the question put to Ariosto by the Cardinal d'Este, on receiving his Orlando: a similar inquiry arose in our minds, after having perused the pious ditties contained in "*Venusia's book*;" and we verily imagined that Mr. Hayley had recovered the Common-place book of P. P. "Clerk

\* \* *Keupeg* signifies *dog*, and is a term very generally bestowed upon Christians.'

† † Ghour or infidel, equally reproachful with *Keupeg*, is the appellation by which they do not hesitate to distinguish a Christian even in conversation with him.'

of this Parish," or the infantine excercises of some Sunday-School.—Withers, Prynne, and Vickers, may now lift up their heads in triumph, and exclaim,

These holy songs shall live for evermore,  
Written, Anno Domini 1804;—

for they display exactly an equal degree of inspiration with the verses of those bards of "ale, or viler liquors."

Had such an assemblage of rhymes been placed before us as a roguish imitation of Mr. Hayley's style, we should have said, "No! this will never do!—The caricature is too strong."—Let our readers judge, from the opening of the poem,—by no means an unfavourable specimen:

' In pleasure's palace, her Venetian dome!  
That echoes to her songs, her fav'rite home!  
In that fair city, whose gay scenes inspire  
The simple gondolier with tuneful fire,  
To woman's height the young VENUSIA grew;  
A form more lovely nature never knew:  
Tho' young, majestic! tho' majestic, mild!  
Modestly gay, and delicately wild!  
The rays of fancy in her features shone;  
Her eyes had all the power of beauty's zone.  
Instructive love a stranger to her breast,  
She knew not yet the magic she possess;  
Or knew it darkly; as her sole desire  
Was but to soothe the spirit of her sire:  
For him, with rare exertion, she combin'd  
All arts, that grace the person, and the mind.  
Each talent her's, that softens, or alarms!  
She much excell'd in all; but most in vocal charms.  
Her speech was melody; and, when she sung,  
Enchanted age believ'd, that he was young.  
Her sire, the stern DONADO! with delight  
Train'd his sweet child, for ever in his sight;  
Himself a noble of Venetian pride,  
He destin'd her to be a brother's bride;  
A brother of the state; in rank his peer;  
One, whose wealth made him to ambition dear;  
Such vain ambition may proud beauty melt;  
But such the pure VENUSIA never felt.'

How is the second foot of the eighth line to be pronounced? It must be read modestly, to make out the rhyme.—In the tenth line we have a very strange figure—Her eyes had the power of a girdle!—This reminds us of the Shepherd, who praised his Mistress by saying that she had as much wit as a giant.—It is still worse when we arrive at the impassioned part (or what ought to be such) of the Courtship of Lucilio:—

' That

'That sound exalted him to feverish bliss,  
Grateful he gave her hand a burning kiss.  
Intoxicated friendship made a *trip*,  
He touch'd, in blind temerity, her *lip* ;'

Never was there a more unfortunate botch than in the last line but one ; excepting, perhaps, some weeping lines in Quarles's *Argalus and Parthenia*.—Here is a sketch of *Venusia's Confession* :

"When first alarm'd, by what thy friendship told,  
I sought my guardian aunt, still kind, tho' old,  
All that she knew, she scrupled to confess,  
But rais'd such doubts, as doubled my distress ;  
Some hints she gave, as if she gave them not,  
From ill-dissembled pity of my lot.  
And much I fear'd in night's first lonely hour,  
Her awful feelings of paternal power !  
I steep'd my pillow in the tears of grief,  
But, ere I rose, receiv'd divine relief.  
At morning's dawn she stood beside my bed,  
And, as amaz'd I blest her, thus she said :"

To every impassioned expression, *Lucilio* replies with a Song : a mode of wooing not very persuasive, we should imagine, even in Italy ! The meagre story of assassins charmed from their purpose by a song, though twice introduced in these pages, being insufficient to fill up the volume, the author has had recourse to an expedient which possesses at least some claim to novelty. He has introduced, in a variety of measures, detached pieces of Poetry, under the signature of his favourite personages. These compositions are much fuller of morality than of poetry, as the reader will perceive from the following specimens :

#### ' SONNET.

'Enliv'ning truth, most luminously sweet !  
"Within us is the kingdom of our God."  
What ! can this form of clay, the valley's clod !  
In its dark bosom yield a mansion meet  
For Heaven's blest lord ?—When evil powers retreat,  
Expell'd by discipline's celestial rod,  
Pure, as the starry path by angels trod,  
The rescued heart he owns his hallow'd seat.  
'Protector of affliction ! gracious sire !  
Guide thou my social and my secret hour !  
And let thy presence all my thoughts inspire,  
To thee submitting every fond desire !  
Make my clear mind, howe'er my lot may lower,  
A temple worthy of thy guardian power !

THEODORE.'

' SONNET.

‘ SONNET.

‘ This blooming world is but a thorny bower ;  
Where treacherous sweets and latent stings abound,  
Where ills in ambush every path surround ;  
Health, beauty, opulence, and mental power  
Shrink, in an instant, like a shrivell’d flower.  
How sinks the heart, in sorrow’s gulph profound,  
When hope’s gay visions are in vapours drown’d,  
And friendship fails us in the trying hour !

‘ Yet all the troubles, that on mortals wait,  
Dark as they are, new scenes of light portend,  
Teaching the soul to triumph over fate,  
And rise, from deep depression more elate ;  
Our chasten’d thoughts, as they to Heaven ascend,  
Find, but in God, the never-failing friend.

THEODORE.’

‘ HYMN.

‘ To wand’ring man thou gracious guide !

Redeemer of his race !

Grant me the comfort to confide .

In thy protecting grace !

In word, in act, with fondest awe

Thy herald may I be !

And O inspire my voice, to draw

New worshippers to thee !

LUCILIO.’

We cannot say that these verses are ‘ luminously sweet,’ (which, by the way, is a most incongruous figure) nor that we have found any consolation for the sorrows of our literary purgatory in perusing them.—It would have been fortunate for the reputation of the author, if some judicious friend had prevented him from throwing these *ringues de la verre* before a public, which has received his former labours with much kindness. We lament to see an ingenious and respectable writer thus descending from his own standard.

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ART. III. *Two Essays : one, on the Author’s Mode of executing Rough Sketches ; the other, on the Principles on which they are composed.* To these are added three Plates of Figures, by Sawrey Gilpin, Esq., R.A. By William Gilpin, M.A. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Cadell and Davies.

IT appears that these essays were written for the purpose of promoting a sale of some of the venerable author’s drawings, the produce of which was to be applied to the maintenance of a parish-school which he had founded at Boldre, near Lymington ; and they are preceded by an account of that establishment,

ment, in which his liberality in providing the means, and his judgment in the management of it, will equally call forth the praises of the reader. Mr. Gilpin has now paid the debt of nature. How far the effort of his benevolence is likely to succeed, without his fostering care, we are not enabled to say : but the amiable method, which he took to give it publicity, will no doubt excite in others a charitable disposition to countenance the orphan institution.

Mr. Gilpin's celebrity in describing the graphic art will occasion us to take more notice of this pamphlet, than its size would otherwise seem to demand. Any production of the pen of that admired writer, on this subject, is likely to be eagerly embraced by a numerous class of readers ; to whom we shall offer a few observations.

As the title expresses, the first essay treats on the author's mode of executing rough sketches ; and it is delivered with that neatness and perspicuity which always accompany his writings. Much as we have been pleased with the fruits of his pencil, we do not cease to lament the evil influence which this mode of spreading a few colours must have on the young student. The magic touches which create so much effect are properly the result of great practice and attention, and can only be advantageously adopted after much experience in the art. Where the juvenile draftsman has been instructed in little else than this mode of making pictures, he leaves his preceptor without being able to produce any delineation of objects from nature ; and being unequal to the task of portraying her sublime appearances, the shadowy lessons become nugatory : while by a habit of drawing with fidelity and decision, he might become capable of giving a tolerable representation of most of the objects which occur in his travels, shewing the forms as he finds them :—an attainment within the reach of almost every person. To select, to suppress, to generalize, and to compose, are superior departments of the art ; to exhibit these with the grandest effects of nature can only be expected from a master of the pencil ; and even he must have arrived at that excellence, by the successive steps which are here pointed out for the student to pursue.

Mr. Gilpin's observations appear to us to be chiefly applicable to those who have made considerable progress in drawing ; and who, with abilities to delineate correctly, possess a good knowledge of the management of colours. He justly recommends a reed pen for sketches ; and he observes that 'care should be taken to leave the strongest marks of the pen on the side opposite to that on which you mean the light to enter,' (p. 11.): but what is said about ink in penciled drawings is trifling ;

trifling; and what he calls picturesque ink has no existence in practice. The picturesque sketches of Guercino, Caracci, and of many modern artists, are effected with the commonest ink; and the beauty of the drawing depends more on the feeling of the artist than on his materials.—The first essay contains also some others of the author's modes of executing rough sketches.

The second essay is 'on the principles on which the author's sketches are composed.' We coincide with him in the opinion 'that nature has its idiom, as well as language, and so has painting;' and when painting generalizes the features of nature, her productions become more interesting. In this line of art, the Italian Professor has the advantage over our own countrymen. With us, almost every scene is a scene of inclosure and cultivation; and from the nature of our climate, picturesque combinations are deprived of that harmonizing atmosphere which gilds the pencil of a Claude, softens the asperity of Salvator Rosa, and embellishes the faithful yet fervid representations of Gasper Poussin. The works of the last mentioned master tend to contradict the remark here quoted by Mr. Gilpin from Sir George Beaumont, that a view from nature 'must be full of awkward lines,' and 'even less interesting than a map.' (p. 26.) Gasper Paussin's pictures are all views from nature; and whoever has studied at Subbiaco, Tivoli, Nemi, and in the environs of Rome, must be sensible of this fact. The painter of elevated ideas, cultured mind, and commanding powers, knows how to make a choice; and that choice is the criterion by which we ought to judge of his taste. It is by bringing before the 'spectator's eye' scenes which affect 'his imagination,' that the painter accomplishes his end: but the first appeal is certainly to the eye; and nothing that is meanly trivial, negligently absurd, or glaringly incongruous, ought to enter into the composition of his picture. This idea agrees with Mr. G.'s precept that 'the probability of every part should appear,' (p. 29.) and the professor who studies from nature will form his ideas to correspond with that probability.

Perhaps it will be thought that we are bestowing too much attention on the cursory remarks of Mr. Gilpin, whose pen and pencil were employed for the purpose of active benevolence. We therefore pass over his observations on general effect and gradation; not that they are unworthy of the *tyro*, but as being only accompaniments to explain a few sketches, which were in their turn to illustrate, 'as far as a sketch or rough drawing can illustrate,' the theory advanced in the letter-press.

Mr. G. speaks of a redundancy in the designs of Claude, and says that he has simplified some of them according to his own practice. These designs of Claude have been engraved, and the originals are in the cabinet of the Duke of Devonshire. Mr. G. observes that 'they exhibit many beautiful parts, but rarely a simple whole; though the collection, *for what reason is not obvious*, is styled *the book of truth*.' (p. 33.) We shall subjoin the reason. In the nomenclature of the painter's art in Italy, *liber veritatis* means a sketch-book, in which the artist registers his memorandums from nature. The English *dilettante* praises a drawing as a study from nature; and the Italian would term the same production, *un disegno copiato dal vero*: the term truth being used in opposition to works of imagination. With this explanation of the title, the practice of Claude strictly corresponds; and it is a valuable example for others to follow, who mean, like him, to excel in the art.

Some specimens for grouping figures in a landscape-drawing conclude this little work; which will not depreciate the reputation acquired by the prior works of the author, while its intention must reflect honour on his memory.

ART. IV. *Mémoires d'un Père, pour servir à l'Instruction de ses Enfants*, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1805. London, reprinted for M. Peltier.

*Memoirs of Marmontel*, written by himself; containing his literary and political Life, and Anecdotes of the principal Characters of the eighteenth Century. Translated from the French. 4 Vols. 12mo. 11. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THIS is one of the most interesting productions which has issued from the French press, since the commencement of the Revolution. To a narrative of the private life of an estimable writer, is added a view of the brilliant literary societies of Paris before the close of the French monarchy, and of the first scenes of that awful tragedy which Europe still contemplates, as it proceeds, with increasing apprehension. The style of the work is also not less attractive than its matter: it is eloquent, flowing, and easily inclines, in pursuing the course of events, either to the ludicrous or the pathetic. We again find, in this production, the manner which charmed us in the author's early Tales, and which he seemed to have forgotten in his last.

It would have been very agreeable to us if we could have complimented the anonymous translator on an adequate performance of his task: but this may not be. His version is bald and literal, perpetually offending against the English idiom;

idiom; and the attempts to render some of the poetical passages are truly miserable. Such as it is, however, we shall use it, in giving some specimens of the work; since our mere English readers must content themselves with the gratification which they can receive through this medium.

Marmontel informs us that he was born at the small town of Bort in the Limosin, of which he gives a beautiful portrait :

‘ Bort, seated on the Dordogne between Auvergne and Limosin, presents a fearful picture to the first view of the traveller, who, at a distance, from the top of the mountain, sees it at the bottom of a precipice threatened with inundation by the torrents that the storms occasion, or with instant annihilation by a chain of volcanic rocks, some planted like towers on the height that commands the town, and others already hanging and half torn from their base. But Bort assumes an aspect more gay as these fears are dissipated and the eye extends itself along the valley. The green and woody island that lies beyond the sown, embraced by the river, and animated by the noise and motion of a mill, is filled with birds. On the banks of the river, orchards, meadows, and corn fields, cultivated by a laborious people, form varied pictures. Below the town the valley opens, presenting on one side an extensive meadow watered by continual springs, and on the other fields crowned by a circle of hills whose gentle slope forms a pleasing contrast with the opposite rocks. Farther on, this circle is broken by a torrent which, from the mountains, rolls and bounds through forests, rocks, and precipices, till it falls into the Dordogne by one of the most beautiful cataracts of the continent, both for the volume of water, and the height of its fall; a phenomenon which only wants more frequent spectators to be renowned and admired. It is near this cataract that the little farm of Saint Thomas lies, where I used to read Virgil under the shade of the blossoming trees that surrounded our beehives, and where their honey afforded me such delicious repasts. It is on the other side of the town, beyond the mill, and on the slope of the mountain, that the garden lies where on welcome holidays my father used to lead me to gather grapes from the vines he himself had planted, or cherries, plums, and apples from the trees he had grafted. But the charm that my native village has left on my memory arises from the vivid impression I still retain of the first feelings, with which my soul was imbued and penetrated, by the inexpressible tenderness that my parents shewed me. If I have any kindness in my character, I am persuaded that I owe it to these gentle emotions, to the habitual happiness of loving and being loved. Ah! what a gift do we receive from heaven, when we are blessed with kind affectionate parents!

‘ I also owed much to a certain amenity of manners that then distinguished my native place; and indeed the simple gentle life we led there must have had some attraction, since nothing was more rare than to see the natives desert it. Their youth was instructed, and their colony distinguished itself in the neighbouring schools; but they re-

turned again to their town, like a swarm of bees to the hive, with the sweets they had collected.'

We could dwell with much pleasure on the animated sketches of domestic happiness which succeed, and on the struggles through which Marmontel emerged from the little college of Mauriac to well-earned reputation: but, as we cannot admit all, we shall leave them to the reader's private enjoyment, and shall proceed to a period of his life which connects him with some of the most distinguished persons of his time. We must, however, snatch one anecdote by the way:

'In one of our walks [from Clermont] to Beauregard, the country-house of the bishoprick, we had the happiness to visit the venerable Massillon. The reception this illustrious old man gave us, was so full of kindness, his presence and the accent of his voice made so lively and tender an impression on me, that the recollection of it is one of the most grateful that I retain of what passed in my early years.

'At that age, when the affections of the mind and soul have, reciprocally, so sudden a communication, when reason and sentiment act and re-act on each other with so much rapidity, there is no one to whom it has not sometimes happened, on seeing a great man, to imprint on his forehead the features that distinguished the character of his soul and his genius. It was thus that among the wrinkles of that countenance already decayed, and in those eyes that were soon to be extinguished, I thought I could still trace the expression of that eloquence, so sensible, so tender, so sublime, so profoundly penetrating, with which I had just been enchanted in his writings. He permitted us to mention them to him, and to offer him the homage of the religious tears they had made us shed.'

In reciting his success at the Floral Games of Toulousse, where he obtained three prizes on one day, the writer has introduced a charming sentiment:

'Amid the tumult and noise of the captivated crowd, two long black arms are raised and extended to me. I look, I recognize my master of the third class, the good father Malosse, whom I had not seen for eight years, and who happened to be present at this ceremony. I instantly rush forward, cut my way through the crowd, and, throwing myself into his arms, with my three prizes: "Here, father," said I to him, "they are yours; it is to you I owe them." The good Jesuit raised his eyes to heaven, and they were filled with tears of joy: and I may say I was more sensible to the pleasure I gave him, than to the brilliancy of my triumph. "Ah! my children, that which interests the heart is always grateful: it delights to the end of life. That which has only flattered the pride of genius recurs but as a vain dream, the error of which we blush to have so madly cherished."

Marmontel had commenced a correspondence with Voltaire, by sending him his verses; and it is honourable to the memory of that great writer, that he encouraged the efforts of the

the young candidate for fame, and urged him to open his literary career in Paris. He even secured for him the patronage of M. Orri, then comptroller general of Finance.—The description of his journey from Toulouse to Paris is very amusing, and furnishes a good lesson for youthful presumption.—His first interview with Voltaire exhibits strong characteristics of that extraordinary man :

‘ Those young men who, born with some genius and love for the arts, have been introduced into the presence of the most celebrated men in the art that forms their own study and delight, have felt like me the confusion, the oppression of heart, the kind of religious fear that I experienced in appearing before Voltaire.

‘ Persuaded that I should have to speak first, I had turned in twenty ways the phrase with which I should address him, and was satisfied with none. He relieved me from this difficulty. On hearing my name, he came to me, and extending his arms, “My good friend,” said he, “I am very glad to see you. Yet I have bad news to tell you ; M. Orri had undertaken to provide for you; M. Orri is no longer in favour.”

‘ I could scarcely have received a more severe, more sudden, or more unexpected blow ; but I was not stunned by it. I have alway been astonished at the courage I have felt on great occasions, for my heart is naturally feeble. “Well, Sir,” said I, “then I must contend with adversity ; I have long known it, and long struggled with it.”—“I am glad to find you have confidence in your own powers. Yes, my good friend, the true and most worthy resource for a man of letters is in himself and in his genius. But, till yours shall have procured you something to exist on, I speak to you candidly as a friend, I must provide for you. I have not invited you hither to abandon you. If even at this moment you be in want of money, tell me so : I will not suffer you to have any other creditor than Voltaire.” I returned him thanks for his kindness, assuring him that, for some time at least, I should not want to profit by it, and that, when I should, I would confidently have recourse to him. “You promise me,” said he, “and I depend on you. In the mean time, let’s hear what you think of applying to ?”—“I really don’t know ; you must decide for me.”—“The stage, my friend, the stage is the most enchanting of all careers ; it is there that in one day you may obtain glory and fortune. One successful piece renders a man at the same time rich and celebrated ; and if you take pains you will succeed.”—“I do not want ardour,” replied I ; “but what should I do for the stage ?”—“Write a good comedy,” said he, in a firm tone.—“Alas ! Sir, how should I make portraits ? I do not know faces.” He smiled at this answer. “Well then write a tragedy.” I answered that I was not quite so ignorant of the passions and the heart, and that I would willingly make the attempt. Thus passed my first interview with this illustrious man.’

Under the auspices of Voltaire, then, Marmontel commenced a dramatic writer ; and, after some hesitation, he

fixed on the subject of *Dionysius the Tyrant*.—The detail of his pecuniary difficulties, at this period, is extremely interesting, and will serve to encourage the exertions of Genius in Poverty, by shewing how cheaply independence may be maintained, in spite of embarrassments. The kindness of Voltaire mitigated Marmontel's sufferings, and at last terminated them, by introducing him to the tuition of the grandson of Madame Harenne. In this situation, the tragedy of *Dionysius* was completed. The accounts of the obstacles which the author encountered in bringing it on the stage are curious; particularly in that scene in which he reads his play to the judges of the drama:

‘I read them my work; they listened with the gravest silence: and after the reading, Mademoiselle Clairon having assured them of my docility, begged them to give me freely their opinion. They begged D’Argental to speak first: the way in which he used to give his opinion is notorious; half words, sentences half suppressed, indecisive phrases, vagueness and obscurity, were all that I could draw from him: and gaping like a fish, he at length pronounced that we must see how it would be received. After him M. de Praslin said that, indeed there were many things in this piece that deserved reflection, and in a sententious tone he advised me . . . . . to think on them. The Abbé de Chauvelin exalted on an arm chair, and dangling his little legs, assured me that they were sadly deceived, who thought a tragedy was a thing so easy; that to combine and compose the plan, the intrigue, the manners, the characters, the diction, was no child’s play; that for his own part, without judging my piece with rigour, he recognised in it the work of a young man; and that, for the rest, he referred to the opinion of M. d’Argental. Thibouville spoke in his turn, and stroking his chin that we might admire the brilliancy of his ring, said that he believed he knew something of tragic poetry: “He had recited so much, he had himself written so much, that he ought to be some judge. But how enter into such details after one single reading? He would only refer me to the models of the art: by naming them he should clearly express what he wished me to understand; and that by reading Racine and M. de Voltaire, it was easy to see in what style they had written.”

‘Having listened with all possible attention, and heard nothing clear and precise on my work, it struck me that delicacy might have induced them to assume, in my presence, this insignificant language. “I leave you with these gentlemen,” whispered I to my actress; “they will explain themselves better when I am gone.” On seeing her again in the evening: “Well,” said I, “did they speak more clearly of me in my absence than when I was present?”—“Indeed,” said, she, laughing, “they spoke quite at their ease.”—“And what did they say?”—“They said it was possible that this piece might succeed; but that it was also possible that it might fail. And all things considered, one answers for nothing, another dares not be too confident.”—“But did they make no particular observation?—On the subject for example?” . . . . .—“Ah! the subject! that is the critical

tical point. Yet who can say? The public are so fickle!"—"And the action, what did they think of that?"—"As for the action, Praslin does not know what to say of it, D'Argental does not know what to think of it, and the two others are of opinion that it must be judged of upon the stage."—"Did they say nothing of the characters?"—"They said that mine would be fine enough, if . . . . .; that of Dionysius would also be well enough, but" . . . . .—"Well! if, but? and what followed?"—"They looked at each other, and said nothing more."—"And the fourth act, what thought they of that?"—"Oh! as for the fourth act, its fate is decided; it will either fail, or be applauded to the skies."—"Well!" cried I with vivacity, "I accept the presage; and it depends on you, Mademoiselle, to determine the prediction in my favour."—"How so?"—"Thus. At the moment when young Dionysius opposes your deliverance, if you see the public rising against this effort of virtue, do not leave them time to murmur, but pressing the reply, pronounce boldly these verses:

"Go, fear nothing, &c."

The actress understood me, and it will soon be seen that she surpassed my hopes.'

The success of this play introduced the writer at once to the gay world. His society was courted every where; and he candidly acknowledges that he was betrayed into habits of dissipation: but his tender attachment to his family appears to have perpetually guarded him against extravagance. In this part of the work, we meet with details which we shall abstain from laying before our readers. They resemble too much the licentious parts of his Tales, which were falsely termed *moral*; and notwithstanding the regret which he expresses for these transactions, they are more calculated to allure than to intimidate the heedlessness of youth.

We accompany the author with pleasure to scenes of a different nature; for example, to the house of Mme. de Tencin, and to her assembly of literary men, whom she familiarly styled *ses betes*:

'In Marivaux, impatience to give proof of acuteness and sagacity was visibly betrayed. Montesquieu, with more calm, waited till the ball came to him, but he expected it. Mairan watched opportunity. Astruc did not deign to wait for it. Fontenelle alone let it come without seeking it; and he used so soberly the attention with which he was listened to, that his acute remarks and charming stories never occupied but a moment. Helvetius, attentive and discreet, sat collecting for a future day. This was an example for me that I should not have had the constancy to follow: and therefore this society had but little attraction for me.'

Marmontel was unfortunate in two pieces which he produced on the stage:—but, as Mme. de Pompadour had interested herself in one of them, he was consoled by obtaining the place of

*Secrétaire des batimens.* He introduces a striking anecdote, previously to the decision on the second of these plays :

“ I here recollect an incident that perhaps may enliven for a moment the recital of my misfortunes. Whilst the manuscript of my tragedy was still in the hands of Madame de Pompadour, I presented myself one morning at her toilette, in the room that was crowded with a conflux of courtiers who had just been at the king’s levee. She was surrounded by them, and whether she were displeased with some one near her, or whether she wished to divert the weariness that this circle occasioned her, as soon as she saw me : “ I want to speak to you,” said she to me ; and quitting her toilette, she went into her cabinet, whither I followed her. It was simply to return me my manuscript on which she had pencilled her notes. She was five or six minutes shewing me the passages she had marked, and explaining to me her criticisms. Yet the whole circle of courtiers were standing round her toilette waiting for her. She re-appeared, and I, concealing my manuscript, went modestly to resume my place. I suspected the effect that this singular incident would produce ; but the impression it made on the whole company far exceeded my expectation. All eyes were fixed on me ; on every side I was addressed by little imperceptible salutations and gentle smiles of friendship ; and before I left the room, I was invited to dinner at least for the whole week. Shall I say it ? a titled man, a man decorated with the ribbon, with whom I had sometimes dined at M. de la Popliniere’s, le M. D. S., standing by my side, took me by the hand, and whispered to me : “ What ! you won’t know your old friends ? ” I bowed, confused at his meanness, and said to myself, “ Ah ! what then is favour, if its shade only gives me such singular importance ? ”

We shall now give the author’s portrait of Mme. de Tencin :

“ Madame de Tencin, who to obtain favour from the state, could put more springs in action both in town and at court than any other person in the kingdom, was to me only a lazy old woman. “ You are not fond of these parties of men of wit,” said she. “ Their presence intimidates you ; well ! come and talk with me in my solitude, you will there be more at your ease ; and the simplicity of your disposition will accommodate itself better to my dull good sense.” She made me tell her the history of my life, from my infancy, entered into all my interests, was touched at all my sorrows, reasoned with me on my views and my hopes, and appeared to have nothing else in her head than my cares. Ah ! how much acuteness of intellect, what suppleness and activity, did this careless air, this appearance of calm and leisure conceal from me ! I still smile at the simplicity with which I exclaimed on quitting her ; *What a good simple creature !* The fruit I gathered from her conversations, without perceiving it, was a more sound and deeper knowledge of the world. For instance, I remember two pieces of advice she gave ; one was to secure to myself a livelihood independent of literary successes, and to put into this lottery only the overplus of my time. “ Woe to him,” said she, “ who depends wholly on his pen ; nothing is more casual. The man who makes shoes is  
sure

sure of his wages ; the man who writes a book or a tragedy is never sure of any thing." Her other counsel was to seek friends among women rather than among men. " For by means of women," said she, " you may do what you please with men ; and then these are either too dissipated, or too much occupied with their own personal interests, to attend to yours ; whereas women think of your interest, be it only out of indolence. Mention this evening to a woman, who is your friend, an affair that intimately concerns you ; to morrow, at her spinning wheel, at her embroidery, you will find her occupied with you, torturing her fancy to invent some means of serving you. But be careful to be nothing more than the friend of her whom you think may be useful to you ; for, between lovers, where once there happens any cloud, dispute, or rupture, all is lost. Be then assiduous to her, complaisant, gallant even if you will, but nothing more ; you understand me." Thus in all our conversations, the plainness of her language imposed on me so well that I never took her subtle intellect for any other than good sense.'

The subsequent anecdotes respecting Voltaire are new and curious :

' It was not enough for him to be the most illustrious of men of letters, he wanted to be a courtier. From his earliest youth he had assumed the flattering habit of living with the great. First, Marshal Villars, the grand prior De Vendôme, and afterwards the Duke de Richelieu, the Duke de la Vallière, the Boufflers, the Montmorency, had been his society. He supped with them habitually, and you know with what respectful familiarity he had the art of writing and speaking to them. Verses lightly and delicately flattering, a conversation not less seducing than his poetry, made him beloved and welcomed among this nobility. Now, these noblemen were admitted to the king's suppers ; and he, why was he not of them ? This was one of his desires. He recollected the reception that Lewis the Great had given to Boileau and Racine ; he said that Horace and Virgil had the honour of approaching Augustus ; that the *Æneid* had been read in the cabinet of Livia. Were Addison and Prior more worthy than he ? And had they not both been honourably employed in their country, one in the ministry, and the other as ambassador ? The place of historiographer was already a mark of confidence in him, and who before him had filled it with so much glory ? He had bought a place of gentleman in ordinary of the king's chamber : this place, commonly very inactive, gave, however, the right of being sent to foreign courts on light commissions, and he had flattered himself that, for a man like him, these commissions would not be limited to bare compliments of felicitation and condolance. He wanted, as we say, to make his way at court ; and, when he had a project in his head, he persisted in it obstinately : one of his maxims was these words of the evangelist *Regnum celorum vim patitur et violenti rapiunt illud* : he employed then all the means he could devise to approach the king.

' When Madame d'Etioles, afterward Marchioness de Pompadour, was announced as the king's mistress, and even before she was declared so, he was eager in paying his court to her. He easily succeeded

ceeded in pleasing her; and while he celebrated the victories of the king, he flattered his mistress by writing pretty verses to her. He was persuaded that, through her, he should obtain the favour of being admitted to the little cabinet suppers, and I am persuaded, that she wished it.

Transplanted to the court, and ignorant enough of the character and tastes of the king, she had at first hoped to amuse him by her talents. On a private theatre she used to play before him little acts of operas, some of which were written for her, and in which her playing, her voice, her singing were justly applauded. Voltaire, in favour with her, took it into his head to wish to direct these performances. The alarm spread to the camp of gentlemen of the bed-chamber and intendants *des menus-plaisirs*. It was trespassing on their rights, and a league was instantly formed among them to remove from the court a man who would have governed them all, if he had pleased the king as well as his mistress. But they knew the king did not like him, and that by his eagerness to increase his importance, he only increased the prejudices against him. But the king, little touched with the praises he had lavished on him in his panegyric, only saw in him an impious philosopher, and an ambitious flatterer. He had at last consented, with great difficulty, that he should be received at the academy. Without reckoning the friends of religion, who were not the friends of Voltaire, there were many about the king who were jealous and envious of the favour they saw him courting, and they were very careful to censure what he did to please. In their mind, the poem of Fontenoy was only a cold gazette; the panegyric on the king was inanimate, wanting colouring, and without eloquence. The verses to Madame de Pompadour were taxed with impropriety and indiscretion; and in this verse in particular:

Be both without an enemy,  
And keep your conquests both.

They persuaded the king that it was indecorous to put him on an equality with his mistress.

At the marriage of the Dauphin with the Infanta of Spain, it was easy to animadvert on the absurdity and folly of having given as a play to the infanta, that *Princesse de Navarre*, which really was not calculated to succeed. I do not say the same of the opera of *le Temple de la Gloire*: the idea of it was grand, the subject well conceived, and nobly executed. The third act, of which Trajan was the hero, presented a flattering allusion for the king; it was a hero, just, humane, generous, pacific, and worthy the love of the world, to whom the temple of glory was open. Voltaire doubted not but that the king would recognise himself in this eulogy. After the play he met him in his way out, and seeing that the king passed without saying any thing to him, he took the liberty of asking him, *Is Trajan satisfied?* Trajan, surprised and displeased that he should have dared to interrogate him, answered by a cold silence; and the whole court thought Voltaire very wrong for having dared to question the king.

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"To remove him, it was only necessary to detach him from the mistress, and the way they took to do this was to oppose to him Crébillon.

"Crébillon, old and poor, was living obscurely in the vilest part of the Marais, labouring by starts at that *Cataline* which he had announced for ten years, and of which he read here and there some bits of scenes that were thought admirable. His age, his successes, his manners somewhat rough, his soldier-like character, his truly tragical face, the air, the imposing though simple tone in which he recited his harsh and inharmonious verses, the vigour, the energy he gave to his expression, all concurred to strike the mind with a sort of enthusiasm. I have heard applauded with transport, by men who were not fools, these verses, which he had put into the mouth of Cicero ;

Cataline, I think you are not guilty ;  
But if you be, you are detestable.  
And I see in you only the talents and renown  
Of the greatest of men, or the greatest of villains.

"The name of Crébillon was the rallying word for the enemies of Voltaire. *Électre* and *Radamiste*, which were sometimes still played, drew but thin houses ; all the rest of Crébillon's tragedies were forgotten, while those of Voltaire, *OEdipe*, *Alcaire*, *Mahomet*, *Zaire*, *Merope*, occupied the theatre in all the splendour of full success. The partisans of old Crébillon were few, but noisy ; and they did not cease to call him the Sophocles of our age ; and even among men of letters Marivaux used to say, that all the fine wit of Voltaire must bow before the genius of Crébillon.

"It was mentioned before Madame de Pompadour, that this great neglected man was suffered to grow old without support, because he was without intrigue. This was touching her in her most sensible part. "What do you say ?" cried she ; "Crébillon is poor and forsaken !" She instantly obtained for him from the king a pension of one hundred pounds from the privy purse.

"Crébillon was eager to go and thank his benefactress. A slight indisposition kept her in bed, when he was announced to her : she desired he might come in. The sight of this fine old man touched her ; she received him with an affecting grace. He was moved by it ; and as he leaned over her bed to kiss her hand, the king appeared. "Ah ! madame," cried Crébillon, "the king has surprised us ; I am lost." This sally in an old man of eighty pleased the king. The fortune of Crébillon was decided. All the *menus plaisirs* launched into praises of his genius and his manners. "He had dignity," said they, "but no pride, and still less of vain glory. His poverty was the proof of his disinterestedness. He was a venerable character, and truly the man whose genius honoured the reign of the king." *Cataline* was mentioned as the wonder of the age. Madame de Pompadour wished to hear it. A day was fixed for the reading ; the king, present, but invisible, heard it. It had complete success ; and on its first performance, Madame de Pompadour, accompanied by a slight of courtiers, attended with the most lively interest. A little time afterward Crébillon obtained the favour of an edition of his works

at the press of the Louvre, at the expence of the royal treasury. From that time Voltaire was coldly received, and he left off going to court.

M. Marmontel's transitory connection with a frivolous and licentious court furnishes some characteristic scenes, but nothing worthy of being extracted.—We are next to regard him as the immediate cause of the great change which has taken place in the dramatic world; of simplicity in declamation, and truth in the Costume of the theatre:

‘I had long been in the habit of disputing with Mademoiselle Clairon, on the manner of declaiming tragic verses. I found, in her playing, too much violence and impetuosity, not enough suppleness and variety, and above all a force that, as it was not qualified, was more a-kin to rant than to sensibility. It was this that I endeavoured discreetly to make her understand. “You have,” I used to say to her, “all the means of excelling in your art; and great as you are, it would be easy for you still to rise above yourself, by managing more carefully the powers of which you are so prodigal. You oppose to me your brilliant successes, and those you have procured me; you oppose to me the opinions and the suffrages of your friends; you oppose to me the authority of M. de Voltaire: who himself recites his verses with emphasis, and who pretends that tragic verses require, in declamation, the same pomp as in the style; and I can only answer I have an irresistible feeling, which tells me that declamation, like style, may be noble, majestic, tragic, with simplicity; that expression, to be lively and profoundly penetrating, requires gradations, shades, unforeseen and sudden traits, which it cannot have when it is stretched and forced.” She used to reply sometimes with impatience, that I should never let her rest, till she had assumed a familiar and comic tone in tragedy. “Ah! no, Mademoiselle,” said I, “that you will never have; nature has forbidden it; you even have it not, while you are speaking to me; the sound of your voice, the air of your countenance, your pronunciation, your gestures, your attitudes, are naturally noble. Dare only to confide in this charming native talent, and I dare warrant you will be the more tragic.”

‘Other counsels than mine prevailed, and, tired of being importunate without utility, I had yielded, when I saw the actress suddenly and voluntarily come over to my opinion. She came to play Roxane at the little theatre at Versailles. I went to see her at the toilette, and, for the first time, I found her dressed in the habit of a sultana; without hoop, her arms half naked, and in the truth of Oriental costume: I congratulated her. “You will presently be delighted with me,” said she. “I have just been on a journey to Bourdeaux; I found there but a very small theatre; to which I was obliged to accommodate myself. The thought struck me of reducing my action to it, and of making trial of that simple declamation you have so often required of me. It had the greatest success there: I am going to try it again here, on this little theatre. Go and hear me. If it succeed as well, farewell my old declamation.”

‘The

' The event surpassed her expectation and mine. It was no longer the actress, it was Roxane, herself, whom the audience thought they saw and heard. The astonishment, the illusion, the enchantment, was extreme. All inquired where are we? They had heard nothing like it. I saw her after the play; I would speak to her of the success she had just had. "Ah!" said she to me, "don't you see that it ruins me? In all my characters, the costume must now be observed; the truth of declamation requires that of dress; all my rich stage-wardrobe is from this moment rejected; I lose twelve hundred guineas worth of dresses; but the sacrifice is made. You shall see me here within a week playing *Electre* to the life, as I have just played Roxane."

' It was the *Electre* of Crébillon. Instead of the ridiculous hoop, and the ample mourning robe, in which we had been accustomed to see her in this character, she appeared in the simple habit of a slave, dishevelled, and her arms loaded with long chains. She was admirable in it; and some time afterward, she was still more sublime in the *Electre* of Voltaire. This part, which Voltaire had made her declaim with a continual and monotonous lamentation, acquired, when spoken naturally, a beauty unknown to himself; for on seeing her play it on his theatre at Ferney, where she went to visit him, he exclaimed, bathed in tears and transported with admiration, "*It is not I who wrote that, 'tis she: she has created her part!*" And indeed, by the infinite shades she introduced, by the expression she gave to the passions with which this character is filled, it was perhaps that of all others in which she was most astonishing.

' Paris, as well as Versailles, recognised in these changes the true tragic accent, and the new degree of probability that the strict observance of costume gave to theatrical action. Thus, from that time all the actors were obliged to abandon their fringed gloves, their voluminous wigs, their feathered hats, and all the fantastic apparel that had so long shocked the sight of all men of taste. Lekain himself followed the example of Mademoiselle Clairon; and from that moment their talents, thus perfected, excited mutual emulation, and were worthy rivals of each other.'

About this period, Marmontel became one of the Encyclopedists; that set of philosophers who have been unjustly reproached with events which they could neither foresee nor desire. It appears that Voltaire might have been easily detached from them, by a little indulgence from the Court:

' In his spite against the king, he had been guilty of imprudencies; but they were guilty of a much greater, who obliged him to remain in a land of liberty, when he would fain have returned to his country. The king's answer, *let him remain where he is*, was not sufficiently deliberate. His attacks were not such as could there be prevented. Versailles, where he would have been less bold than in Switzerland or Geneva, was the place of exile they should have given him. The priests should have opened to him that magnificent prison: it was thus that Cardinal de Richelieu acted toward the first nobility.

‘ In reclaiming his title of gentleman in ordinary of his majesty’s chamber, he himself held out to them the end of the chain with which they might have attached him if they would. I owe this testimony to Madame de Pompadour, that he was exiled against her will. She interested herself for him, she sometimes inquired for him of me, and, when I answered that it depended only on her to make her inquiries unnecessary, “ Ah ! no, it does not depend on me,” said she, with a sigh.

‘ It was then from Geneva that Voltaire animated the co-operators of the *Encyclopedie*. I was of the number ; and my greatest pleasure, every time I went to Paris, was to find myself in their society. D’Alembert and Diderot were satisfied with what I wrote, and our relations strengthened more and more the bonds of that friendship, which ended but with life : they were more intimately, more tenderly, more assiduously cultivated by d’Alembert ; but not less sincere, not less unalterable with the good Diderot, whom I was always so delighted to see, and so charmed to hear.’

The origin of Marmontel’s celebrated Tales does him great credit. He had procured the appointment of Editor of the *Mercurc François* for Boissy, a man of letters in distress ; Boissy found himself unequal to the task of supporting the publication, and applied to Marmontel for his friendly aid :

‘ Destitute of assistance, finding nothing passable in the papers that were left him, Boissy wrote me a letter, which was a true picture of distress. “ You will in vain have given me the *Mercurc*,” said he ; “ this favour will be lost on me, if you do not add that of coming to my aid. Prose or verse, whatever you please, all will be good from your hand. But hasten to extricate me from the difficulty in which I now am ; I conjure you in the name of that friendship which I have vowed to you for the rest of my life.”

‘ This letter roused me from my slumber ; I beheld this unhappy editor a prey to ridicule, and the *Mercurc* decried in his hands, should he let his penury be seen. It put me in a fever for the whole night ; and it was in this state of crisis and agitation that I first conceived the idea of writing a tale. After having passed the night without closing my eyes, in rolling in my fancy the subject of that I have entitled *Alcibiade*, I got up, wrote it at a breath, without laying down my pen, and sent it off. This tale had an unexpected success. I had required that the name of its author should be kept secret. No one knew to whom to attribute it ; and at Helvétius’s dinner, where the finest connoisseurs were, they did me the honour of ascribing it to Voltaire, or to Montesquieu.’

After the death of Boissy, the patent for the *Mercurc* was given to Marmontel, and he quitted Versailles. His account of the plan on which he conducted that paper is very amusing, especially as it comprehends some anecdotes of Galet and Canard, already celebrated in the joyous life of Piron.—*Sed manum de tabulâ.*

[To be continued.]

ART.

**ART. V.** *The Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain*, displayed in a Series of select Engravings, representing the most beautiful, curious, and interesting Antient Edifices of this Country; with an Historical and Descriptive Account of each Subject. By John Britton. 4to. Part I. with eight Engravings. 10s. 6d. sewed, Longman and Co. 1805.

**D**ESCRPTIONS of architectural antiquities are given either as examples for building, or to illustrate some circumstances in the history of the times to which they relate. In the former case, they are represented with various degrees of accuracy, depending on the abilities of the artist, the diligence bestowed, or the expence intended to be incurred in the undertaking. How much soever may be professed, scarcely an instance can be adduced of a work which describes an object of antient architecture with sufficient information for executing a similar edifice; and the most celebrated publications give only the external dimensions and forms, neglecting the description of the internal structure from which those external forms arise. The recent volumes of a learned society are by no means free from these defects: which is the more to be lamented because the example will have an extensive influence; their drawings being made professedly to enable future generations to imitate the celebrated buildings which they represent.

The half ruined state of these architectural objects generally affords ample means of developing the interior structure; and, which is of still more consequence, it assists us to investigate the fundamental principles on which those buildings were erected. Every style of antient architecture, with which we are acquainted, proceeded on sound principles, deriving exterior forms from a just conformation of the several parts; and there is too much reason for saying that it was left to this age alone to produce forms which have no reference to the destination of the building, and are at variance with the construction:—forms which are thus distorted, and of which the duration, in consequence, is scarcely more than coeval with the race that gives them existence.

Expensive publications continually appear, presenting picturesque views of this class of antiquities, from which very little information can be derived. The plan of the present work is of a more useful kind, and does great credit to the projectors: it gives, besides perspective representations, such specimens of the detail as tend to elucidate the general character of the buildings: each subject accompanied by a descriptive account, and a concise and well digested history, collected

lected from different authorities. The objects are well chosen: the plates are beautifully executed; and the whole constitutes a pleasing performance at a moderate price; containing as much as may be deemed necessary, where deep researches or extensive architectural information are not desired.—It is introduced by a short prefatory advertisement, in which the author observes:

‘It may be proper to remark, that, as I wish to illustrate and historically develop the Ancient Architecture of Great Britain, untrammelled by any theory, or favourite system, I shall gladly avail myself of any suggestion, description, or document, that gentlemen may be inclined to honour me with. As there are many curious remains in Scotland, Ireland, and Normandy, any descriptions, with illustrative sketches, of those, will be peculiarly acceptable.

‘Each Part of this Work will be complete in itself, as indeed will every subject; by which plan of publication, the reader may arrange the prints and descriptions, either in chronological order, or in such classes as may be most agreeable to his fancy, or adapted to his collection.’

The present number, or part the first, includes a plan and three views of the remains of the priory church of St. Botolph at Colchester: three plates of the priory church at Dunstable: one of Layer Marney house in Essex; and one of St. Nicholas church and the abbey gateway at Abingdon in Berkshire. From the accompanying letter-press, we extract the account of Layer Marney house as a specimen:

‘Of the Domestic Architecture which was peculiar to the Anglo-Romans, Anglo Saxons, and Anglo-Normans, there are no specimens remaining; and its characteristics are only imperfectly noticed in the pages of the Historian, and the Antiquary. Unfortunately for us, these notices are so extremely vague, that they serve rather as *hints* to the fancy, than as satisfactory evidences to the judgment. Hence the diversity of opinions that prevail on this subject, and hence the imperious necessity of obtaining and perpetuating correct delineations with faithful accounts of the most ancient structures. For it must be evident that authentic information relating to the comparative state of the useful arts at different periods, constitutes an important object in the history of a kingdom, and serves materially to characterize the manners, customs, and habits of a people.

‘The dissolution of monasteries by Henry the Eighth, occasioned an extraordinary change in the features of the times; and the state of Domestic Architecture has to date a new epoch from that event. Many religious houses were then converted into mansions; and some of the newly-erected seats were built in imitation of the monastic dwellings. “*LAYER MARNEY HALL*,” observes Morant, “was a grand and capacious house, wherein many persons could be conveniently

lodged. The building was square, enclosing a court with a grand entrance towards the south." This estate continued the property of the Marney family, from the time of Henry Second, until the 35th of Henry the Eighth, when with other lands in Essex, it was obtained in exchange by Sir Bryan Tuke †. The present mansion appears to have been built by Sir Henry Marney, "who was Captain of the Guard to Henry VIII. made Knight of the Garter, Lord Privy-Seal, 14 Henry VIII. and in the same year was created Lord Marney." Towards the latter end of Henry the Seventh's, and the beginning of Henry the Eighth's reigns, the mansions began to lose their real castellated character, though still retaining many of its peculiarities: small windows, thick walls, base courts, turrets, and a sort of embattled parapet still continued. Layer Marney Hall appears of this description: chequered compartments of flint, and diagonal lines of dark glazed bricks were frequently introduced into the fronts of buildings about this period. With a large court in the centre, measuring 104 feet 6 inches by 76 feet 4 inches, surrounded by lofty buildings, and entered by a handsome tower gateway, this mansion must have been spacious in its interior, and have displayed much grandeur and dignity externally. The two projecting octagon towers, about 73 feet high, are each divided into eight stories or floors, lighted by small pointed arch windows. Two floors, occupied by two rooms, fill up the space between the towers: these have large square windows, with mullions, which partake of the character of the Ionic pilaster. The decorations on the summit, with those of the windows, cornices, &c. are made of a species of white brick, which was cast in moulds, in large and thick masses. All the fire places are made of soft fire stone, the door-posts and lintels of the stables, &c. are of Purbeck marble, and the whole of the walls are of brick. These are not peculiar either in size or substance, but the mode of building is eminently substantial. Exclusive of the great defalcations in this structure, many absurd and destructive alterations have progressively been made by successive proprietors. Abandoned to neglect and decay, it was, till within these few years, fast-hastening to total ruin, when its present owner, N. C. Corcellis, Esq. checked its mutilating progress by some praise-worthy repairs, and judicious restorations.

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\* Henry III. in the 48th year of his reign, grants to Wm. de Marney leave to impark his wood of *Lire*, within the precincts of the forest of Essex. And the same time he had *liberty granted him to hunt within the forest of Essex.* Salmon's History of Essex; fo. p. p. 447.

† Private Acts, 35th Hen. VIII. ch. 9.

‡ Salmon's History, &c. p. 448.

§ Henry the Seventh granted a *licence*, or permission, to fortify the manor-house at New Hall, Essex, with walls and towers; and Gosfield Hall, which was built in his reign, in a manner to evade the law, has a large quadrangular court in the centre, and was equally strong and well secured as many baronial castles. Beauties of England and Wales. Vol. V. p. 265. 361.

We shall have great pleasure in announcing the continuation of this work; trusting that the same elegance and good selection will characterize the succeeding parts. Under these circumstances, the reasonableness of the price must insure its success. A number is intended to appear every three months; and the second is just published.

ART. VI. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1805. Part I. 4to. 10s. sewed. Nicol.

MEDICAL and CHEMICAL PAPERS, &c.

**T**HE *Croonian Lecture on Muscular Motion*. By Anthony Carlisle, Esq., F.R.S.—The objects to which Mr. C. particularly directs his attention, in this paper, are the changes that prevail in muscles during their contraction and relaxation, and the connection of these actions with the vascular, respiratory, and nervous systems. After some remarks on the structure of muscles, as composed of the proper fibres divided into bundles of various sizes, he details a set of experiments which were instituted to prove that the cohesion of muscles in the dissection of their fibres is diminished by death. They were performed on the hinder legs of frogs; and the result was that an irritable limb sustained a weight of one-sixth more than a similar limb deprived of its vitality.

The origin of the muscular fibre is involved in much obscurity; whether the first rudiment in the egg (the *punctum saliens*, as it is usually styled,) derive its organization immediately from the parent, or whether it be a part of entirely new formation, resulting from the effects of incubation, is still undecided: Mr. Carlisle inclines to the former opinion. It may be concluded that albumen is the source whence the first element of the animal is generated; since during incubation the *albumen ovæ* is consumed. This indeed might be inferred from a knowledge of the chemical structure of the body; for we observe, in all parts that contain any peculiar substance,—as the earth of bones, or the muscular matter,—that it is imbedded or deposited in a mould of albumen.

Mr. C. differs from other anatomists in supposing that the ultimate muscular fibre may be visible to the eye. He describes it as ‘a solid cylinder, the covering of which is a reticular membrane, and the contained part a pulpy substance irregularly granulated, and of little cohesive power when dead.’ In general, it has been supposed that the muscles are so far indefinitely divisible, that their ultimate fibres elude the sight, even when assisted by the most powerful microscopes: but this point can only be determined by future observations. It is also here maintained,

maintained, contrary to the prevailing opinion, that vascularity is not infinitely extended. The author controverts the generally received doctrine, on the principle that we can distinctly perceive an evident difference between the vascularity of different parts; and also that, below a certain size, a vessel would not be able to convey any thing but pure water, and would of course be useless in the animal œconomy.—He informs us that the termination of the nervous fibrils may be easily detected by a microscope; or that they may at least be traced 'as far as their sensible properties and their continuity extend.' They are seen to terminate on the surface of the reticulated membrane.

The structure of the animal body is varied by insensible degrees, from the elaborate fabric of the human frame, to the lowest tribe of beings who merely give indications of irritability, without exhibiting any distinct organization of blood-vessels, nerves, or fibres. In these animals, it would appear that every particle is equally alive, and equally important to its œconomy: but, as we advance to the higher scales of being, we find that there are parts which are more or less essential to existence, and which seem to possess more or less of the characters of living matter. Mr. Carlisle indeed supposes that some of the materials of the body cannot properly be said to be alive, as water and earthy matter; and he extends his opinion to the hoofs, horns, feathers, and cuticular covering; inclining also to place in the same class the reticular membrane and the tendons. To a certain extent, we have no doubt of the truth of this doctrine: but we think that the author carries it much beyond the limits of fair induction.

These remarks on the structure of muscles lead Mr. Carlisle to the second part of his subject. He notices the differences in the temperature of animals, and points out its connection with the peculiarities in their respiration and circulation; and he gives some observations made on the blood and internal parts of newly killed animals, from which it seems that their temperature is considerably higher than the estimate usually formed. It will remain for future experimenters to confirm or refute Mr. Carlisle's observations. Perhaps the most valuable part of the paper is an account of the effects produced by crimping fish; which were found both to have gained a considerable addition to their weight by the operation, and likewise to have their specific gravity increased. The additional weight must have been derived from their having united themselves to a quantity of water; and we must conclude that a considerable approximation of their particles had been induced, because their specific gravity was augmented, notwithstanding

this circumstance. We have also some experiments on the effects of different fluids on the irritability of muscles immersed in them: but they are detailed in too loose a manner to enable us to draw any precise conclusions from them.

Mr. Carlisle's paper certainly contains some valuable information, and ingenious views respecting the animal economy: but we remark a vagueness in the style, and a carelessness in the experiments, which are much to be regretted on scientific subjects.

*On the Action of Mercury and Platina on each other.* By Richard Chenevix, Esq., &c.—Most of our readers must be acquainted with the singular manner in which Palladium was first announced to the public as a new metal, and with the experiments of Mr. Chenevix to prove that it was a compound of mercury and platina. The subject soon attracted general attention, and experiments were performed on it by some of the most distinguished chemists in different parts of Europe. Still the question concerning the compound nature of Palladium remained undecided; though the majority of the most respectable authorities, contrary to the opinion of Mr. Chenevix, inclined to consider it as a new and distinct metal. In this state of uncertainty, Mr. C. applied himself to investigate not only the formation of Palladium, but the action which mercury and platina, its supposed constituents, exercise on each other. This latter inquiry forms the basis of the present paper; and in whatever way we may decide respecting palladium, we must acknowledge that Mr. Chenevix has given us a valuable specimen of laborious investigation.

He commences by detailing an account of the different attempts that have been made to repeat his process for the formation of palladium, and the want of success which has in general attended these operations. He endeavours to account for this failure, either by pointing out some circumstances which had not received sufficient attention, or by shewing that the experiments had not been repeated so often as to give a fair chance of success; for the operation is confessedly of so delicate a nature, that he himself obtained only four successful results, out of (as he computes) nearly a thousand trials. Such a degree of uncertainty cannot but tend very strongly to impress the mind with a doubt of the correctness of Mr. Chenevix's conclusions; yet we acknowledge that it does not form an insuperable objection to them, because analyses, even of the most simple kind, have occasionally given different products in the hands of different chemists of distinguished skill and accuracy.

After

After these preliminary observations, we proceed to the more immediate subject of the paper. The author remarks that the point now under discussion not only involves the question respecting the nature of palladium, whether it be a simple or a compound body, but that it applies to metallic substances in general, and leads us to a very important conclusion respecting the action which metals exercise on each other; by which it seems that their principal properties may be so far altered, that their presence can be no longer detected by the usual methods. This he states to be the case with respect to mercury and platina; and waiving for the present all considerations respecting palladium, he endeavours to establish this general position.

It would carry us much beyond our usual limits to detail the experiments which Mr. Chenevix performed in order to decide this point: but the conclusions, which seem to be fairly deduced from them, are, that platina can protect a considerable quantity of mercury from the action of nitric acid; that the presence of mercury promotes the action of nitro-muriatic acid on platina; that mercury can combine with platina so strongly as not to be dissipated by the action of a powerful heat; and that the presence of platina in a solution of mercury prevents the mercury from being detected by that which, in other cases, is the most delicate test of its presence. To these effects resulting from the union of platina and mercury, he principally confines himself in the paper now under our review. No additional evidence is offered in favour of the compound nature of palladium; except that the experiments must be considered as removing some of the objections against the supposition, by shewing how completely the characteristic properties of mercury and platina may be concealed or altered by their union with each other.

Since the composition of this memoir, it has been stated by Dr. Wollaston that the palladium, which was offered for sale in so mysterious a manner, was extracted by that gentleman from crude platina. This circumstance, at first view, would lead to the conclusion that palladium is a simple metal; and that, in those cases in which Mr. Chenevix obtained it in the course of his experiments, it had been previously contained in the platina on which he operated: but Mr. C. suggests, in a postscript to this paper, that the alloy of platina and mercury may have been formed by nature, or may have been produced by the amalgamation to which platina is subjected before it reaches Europe. On the whole, though we are not disposed to consider the question as absolutely settled, yet we feel inclined to dissent from the opinion of Mr. Chenevix, notwithstanding

standing our high opinion of his ability as a philosophical and practical chemist.

*An Account of some Analytical Experiments on a Mineral Production from Devonshire, consisting principally of Alumine and Water.* By Humphry Davy, Esq., F.R.S., &c.—A fossil of an uncommon appearance having been some years ago found near Barnstaple, which, from its geological position, and its physical characters, appeared to be a non-descript mineral, Mr. Davy undertook its examination. By a series of experiments, conducted with peculiar neatness and perspicuity, he ascertained the composition of the purest specimen to be alumine 70 parts, lime 1.4, fluid 26.2, and loss 2.4. The loss is attributed, with apparent justice, to a quantity of water still adhering to the earth, and the lime is considered as only an accidental ingredient. Mr. Davy hence concludes that 'the pure matter of the fossil must be considered as a chemical combination of about 30 parts of water and 70 of alumine;' some specimens of the mineral contained the oxyd of manganese and the oxyd of iron: but as these substances were not uniformly present, they were only considered as accidental varieties. M. Vauquelin had imagined the Diaspore to consist principally of alumine and water: but the proportion of water is considerably less than in this new mineral, and they differ materially in their physical and chemical characters. This new fossil was first found by Dr. Wavel, and it has been proposed to call it Wavellite; or, if it be named from its chemical composition, it may be denominated Hydrargillite.

*Experiments on Wootz.* By David Mushet.—It appears that Mr. Mushet was requested by Sir Jos. Banks to undertake a set of experiments on the peculiar substance called wootz, a kind of coarse steel manufactured by the inhabitants of Hindostan; and in this paper we have the results of his experiments. It is formed into masses called cakes, which vary considerably in their texture and appearance; and of these Mr. Mushet examined five different specimens. After having accurately described the external appearance of each of the cakes, he details with much minuteness the effects produced by exposing them to different degrees of heat, and afterward subjecting them to the action of the hammer. Though in this process the wootz exhibited some properties of good steel, yet the texture of the different parts was not homogeneous; and in other respects it manifested a want of those qualities which are essential to the perfection of this substance. He concludes that the ore is of a calcareous nature, or that a quantity of calcareous earth is added to it during fusion, along with a portion

tion of carbonaceous matter: but that the heat employed is not sufficiently intense to effect a perfect reduction, and that consequently its texture is not homogeneous.

Mr. Mushet afterward examined the proportion of carbon in the different cakes of wootz, comparing it with the carbon in common cast steel and in white crude iron; and the quantity of carbon was ascertained by observing how much lead was reduced by heating a given quantity of the substance with three times its weight of flint glass. The result was that wootz contained considerably more carbon than steel, though less than cast iron. This circumstance, added to its imperfect fusion, Mr. Mushet remarks, is sufficient to account for its refractory nature, and heterogeneous texture. He however supposes that the ore, whence this substance is extracted, must be excellent, notwithstanding the imperfection of the article manufactured from it; and he recommends it as an important object of attention to the East India Company.

#### NATURAL HISTORY.

*Concerning the State in which the true Sap of Trees is deposited during Winter.* By Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq.—We have had occasion, in our review of some of the former volumes of the Phil. Trans. \*, to remark the interesting observations of Mr. Knight on vegetable physiology; and he appears to be successfully continuing his researches into this department of science. It has been long acknowledged by naturalists, that, besides the common sap, which rises during the spring, along the vessels of the trunk, trees contain also another kind of fluid, which has been styled the *succus proprius*, called by Mr. K. the true sap, on which the specific properties of different vegetables are supposed to depend. The subject of the present paper is the state in which the true sap is deposited during the winter.

No very accurate ideas have hitherto been formed on this point: but it appears to have been imagined that the true, as well as the aqueous sap, in the winter season, left the substance of the wood; and to this absence of all fluid, has been attributed the superior excellence of timber felled in the winter. Mr. Knight, however, conceives that the true sap remains at this time in the alburnum; that it is dissolved in the spring by the ascending aqueous sap; and that, being carried forwards to the extremities of the plant, it is the principal agent in the formation of the new leaves. This true sap is

\* See Rev. N. S. Vols. xxxviii. p. 295.—xliv. p. 64.—and xlv. p. 225.

supposed to be elaborated by the leaves of the preceding summer, and, after its formation, is lodged in the alburnum until the following spring.

In order to prove the truth of his hypothesis, Mr. Knight examined, at different heights from the ground, the aqueous sap as it rose in the trunk in the early part of the year; and he found that, where it was received at some distance from the root, it was of a greater specific gravity and of a sweeter taste. He examined the alburnum of wood felled at different seasons; and he found that which was felled in the winter to be of the greatest specific gravity, and to communicate more extractive matter to water. He imagines that the cotyledons of seeds, and the roots of bulbous and tuberous plants, like the alburnum of trees, contain a quantity of true sap, which has been elaborated by the leaves of the preceding summer, and which serves as a deposit for the nutriment of the following year.

We cannot enter more minutely into the details of Mr. Knight's paper; his ideas are ingenious, and his arguments plausible, though perhaps scarcely sufficient to produce irresistible conviction. We hope that he will continue to pursue his investigations into the intricate subject of vegetable physiology; since we are confident that exertions so well directed must be ultimately successful.

#### PHILOSOPHY and ASTRONOMY.

*Experiments for ascertaining how far Telescopes will enable us to determine very small Angles, and to distinguish the real from the spurious Diameters of celestial and terrestrial Objects: with an Application of the Result of these Experiments to a Series of Observations on the Nature and Magnitude of Mr. Harding's lately discovered Star.* By William Herschell, LL.D. F.R.S.—Small objects cannot be distinguished from each other, for instance, a small circular object from a square one,) unless the angle subtended at the eye exceeds a certain magnitude. The determination of that magnitude, when objects are viewed with the naked eye, was made by the author of the present paper in 1774: but when objects are viewed by the aid of Telescopes, new inquiries are requisite; and such are instituted and recorded in the memoir before us. The small objects employed by Dr. H. were the Heads of Pins, Globules of Sealing Wax, Silver, Pitch, Bee's-wax, &c. and the results of the several experiments are stated with the author's customary minuteness of detail. They do not, however, strike us as very interesting, nor very important.—The memoir terminates with observations on the nature and magnitude of Mr. Harding's lately discovered star: whence it appears that this new star is to be classed with the

the two that were discovered by Mr. Piazzi and Dr. Olbers, and by Dr. H. denominated Asteroids. Those readers, who recollect the definition of this new term, may understand in what peculiar circumstances the new star differs from a common planet.

*An Essay on the Cohesion of Fluids.* By Thomas Young, M.D. For. Sec. R. S.—This essay appears to us by no means sufficiently clear, precise, or full: the subject is indeed difficult, but thence necessarily arises no obstacle which prevents what is known on that subject from being exactly and simply stated. Since, however, Dr. Y. points to a period at which he shall more fully discuss it, we suppress our dissatisfaction at the obscurity in which some of the reasonings of the present memoir are involved.

Some authors have asserted that the phenomena of capillary action may be referred to the cohesive attraction of the superficial particles only of the fluids concerned; and it is this principle which, if we understand him, Dr. Young adopts; expands, and endeavours to establish. Before, however, he enters on his discussions, he premises an assertion which he says is new, and consistent with theory and observation; viz. that for each combination of a solid and a fluid, there is an appropriate angle of contact between the surfaces of the fluid exposed to the air, and to the solid. Water, between two plates of glass, separated by a small interval, ascends to a certain height: mercury and other fluids ascend, the interval remaining the same, to different heights. In order, then, that the results of calculation may be compared with actual experiments, it is necessary to find the value of certain elements of the calculation: such as the actual ascent of water between plates separated from each other by a determinate interval. The labours and experiments of preceding philosophers enable us to ascertain these Elements with tolerable accuracy. Dr. Y. employs some of the pages of his memoir on this subject, in the article which he names ‘Application to the Elevation of particular fluids:’ but we confess that we do not exactly comprehend the connection of this article with the preceding, in which the author investigates some of the properties of the curves caused by attraction, in the simplest cases. At the conclusion of his paper, he observes:

‘Although the whole of this reasoning on the attraction of solida is to be considered rather as an approximation than as a strict demonstration, yet we are amply justified in concluding, that all the phenomena of capillary action may be accurately explained and mathematically demonstrated from the general law of the equable tension of the surface of a fluid, together with the consideration of the angle of contact

contact appropriate to every combination of a fluid with a solid. Some anomalies, noticed by MUSSCHENBROEK and others, respecting in particular the effects of tubes of considerable lengths, have not been considered; but there is great reason to suppose that either the want of uniformity in the bore, or some similar inaccuracy, has been the cause of these irregularities, which have by no means been sufficiently confirmed to afford an objection to any theory. The principle, which has been laid down respecting the contractile powers of the common surface of a solid and a fluid, is confirmed by an observation which I have made on the small drops of oil which form themselves on water. There is no doubt but that this cohesion is in some measure independent of the chemical affinities of the substances concerned: tallow when solid has a very evident attraction for the water out of which it is raised; and the same attraction must operate upon an unctuous fluid to cause it to spread on water, the fluidity of the water allowing this powerful agent to exert itself with an unresisted velocity. An oil which has thus been spread is afterwards collected, by some irregularity of attraction, into thin drops, which the slightest agitation again dissipates: their surface forms a very regular curve, which terminates abruptly in a surface perfectly horizontal: now it follows from the laws of hydrostatics, that the lower surface of these drops must constitute a curve, of which the extreme inclination to the horizon is to the inclination of the upper surface as the specific gravity of the oil to the difference between its specific gravity and that of water: consequently since the contractile forces are held in equilibrium by a force which is perfectly horizontal, their magnitude must be in the ratio that has been already assigned; and it may be assumed as consonant both to theory and to observation, that the contractile force of the common surface of two substances is proportional, other things being equal, to the difference of their densities. Hence, in order to explain the experiments of BOYLE on the effects of a combination of fluids in capillary tubes, or any other experiments of a similar nature, we have only to apply the law of an equable tension, of which the magnitude is determined by the difference of the attractive powers of the fluids.

I shall reserve some further illustrations of this subject for a work which I have long been preparing for the press, and which I flatter myself will contain a clear and simple explanation of the most important parts of natural philosophy. I have only thought it right, in the present Paper, to lay before the Royal Society, in the shortest possible compass, the particulars of an original investigation, tending to explain some facts, and establish some analogies, which have hitherto been obscure and unintelligible.

*An Investigation of all the Changes of the variable Star in Sobieski's Shield, from five Years Observations, exhibiting its proportional illuminated Parts; and its Irregularities of Rotation: with Conjectures respecting unenlightened heavenly Bodies.* By Edward Pigott, Esq.—In the first part of this paper, the author pursues the investigations begun by him some years since, relative to the changes and periods of brightness in one of the variable stars in Sobieski's shield; and the determinations pre-  
viously

viously formed by Mr. Pigott are in the present memoir revised by the aid of additional observations. Such observations were, for the space of five years, entered in a journal; and the substance of it, intermixed with comments and remarks, occupies the commencement of this paper. To the memoir itself we refer those who are fond of astronomical studies, since we think that a brief sketch of the remarks, reasonings, and conjectures of Mr. Pigott, must be uninteresting to the generality of readers.

The usual *Meteorological Journal* concludes this Part of the Transactions. Part II. for this year has just appeared.

ART. VII. *Elements of Self Knowledge*: intended to lead Youth into an early Acquaintance with the Nature of Man, by an Anatomical Display of the Human Frame, a concise View of the mental Faculties, and an Inquiry into the genuine Nature of the Passions.—Compiled, arranged, and partly written, by R. C. Dallas, Esq. 8vo. pp. 464. 10s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

AMONG the number of eminent men, from whose works the author informs us that he has derived assistance in preparing these elements, the name of Cheselden is not omitted: but this general acknowledgement hardly justifies Mr. Dallas in copying verbatim so much of that anatomist's writings, as to constitute nearly the whole of the first part, which occupies about a fourth of the present volume. It often falls to our lot to toil through the numerous pages of mere compilation: but we have never yet seen a mode less fatiguing, even to the mechanical powers of an author, employed in the manufacture of a book, than the extensive abstraction which we have now had occasion to notice.—In his *Anatomy of the Human Body*, Cheselden mentions, in the first person, a considerable number of experiments and observations made by himself on different subjects, which Mr. Dallas quotes without modification. This will of course give him, with some readers, the credit of an experimentalist and practical observer: but this is an impression which he should have been cautious in producing, since it is obvious that his acquaintance with *Anatomy* is very inaccurate; as, for example, he adopts the old ideas mentioned by Cheselden on the origin and termination of the lymphatics, instead of those which have been long universally admitted.

Mr. Dallas employs a curious mode of establishing the utility and dependence on each other of the various parts which compose the body, by attempting to demonstrate, *a priori*, that those

those parts must of necessity exist in a 'corporeal fabric,' in which was placed an 'immaterial part' to 'hold correspondence with other material beings by the intervention of the body.'—Of this kind of speculation, we perceive neither the utility nor the truth. The different wants, for the provision of which various organs were made, and the different modes in which those wants are supplied, were determined by the author of nature; and therefore, like other natural phenomena, they cannot be the subject of *a priori* reasoning.

As Mr. D. acknowledges his obligations to the works of Cheselden and Hunter in the first part of his work, which is devoted to an anatomical display of the human frame: so in the second and third parts, which treat of the mental faculties and the passions, he confesses that he has availed himself of the writings of Watts, Burlamaqui, and Adam Smith; though he has not entirely depended on them, but has ventured to interweave a small treatise of his own.

In displaying the anatomy of the mind, this compiler discovers no great metaphysical penetration: for he not only assigns to it more distinct faculties than it possesses, but he tells us that 'so absolutely free is the Will of the human spirit, that it may choose to be directed by that which it judges to be the worst motive; or it may choose to act contrary to every motive, or *without any motive at all*; and this last manner of acting is so well known and so common, that we have dignified it with a particular name, by calling it whim.' We are hence to understand that the whimsical man acts without *any* motive: but this mode of appreciating him is as much at variance with philosophy, as with the ordinary apprehensions of the world. A man of whim is not devoid of motives; he is only actuated by those which are singular or ridiculous. Besides, it is absurd to say that the Will in any instance decides without any motive at all.

Some compensation is made for this metaphysical slip by the subsequent chapter on Conscience; and particularly by the third part, which is devoted to a consideration of the Passions. We do not mean to say that here, any more than in the foregoing parts, the analysis is perfect: on the contrary, had Mr. Dallas been more intimately acquainted with the writers on moral philosophy, he would have given a clearer view of the primary and of the compound passions:—but, as a practical account of the operation of the passions, and as an essay intended to assist us in the moral knowledge and command of ourselves, we perused it with considerable satisfaction. The object of the whole is to shew that there is no essential viciousness in the passions, which is indeed, the doctrine of Aristotle:

Πάν

Πάντα παρὰ τὴν φύσιν αὐτῶν καὶ Ἀφῆται αὐτῶν αἰς Κανόνας. It is well observed that

‘ Whenever we meet with a name or term, which seems to signify a passion that can serve for no good purpose, we may be assured, and on strict examination we shall discover, that it does not really mean any genuine passion, but a wrong direction, or extravagant stretch of a passion. It will not be amiss to observe here that all the passions and affections of the human mind may be trained to subjection by a constant check, or strengthened and rendered almost ungovernable by continued indulgence: therefore Reason, like a good centinel, should be always awake and alert upon his post.

‘ The passions then are the springs of virtue, and they are in their nature and origin good, and intended for the benefit of mankind; but it is the channels into which they diverge that render them pernicious, and form them also into the springs of vice. Even envy and avarice, the most odious of our emotions, are to be traced up to untainted sources; the former in general, arising from the desire of excellence, and the latter from the wish of estimation. Secure the stream where it first threatens deviation, teach it to flow within the bounds originally prescribed by nature, it will then run with a clear and smooth current, and bear along with it both pleasure and virtue.’

Of what importance is it, then, to give a right direction to these movers of the mind, and to have them under proper control! Moral philosophy should form a part in the system of education. To put the rising generation on their guard against the errors and excesses of the passions, they should be assisted in contemplating their nature and combinations; which would not only prepare them for what is called a Knowledge of the World, but would help to secure them from many of the follies and vices with which this knowledge makes them familiar. It would assist them in ascertaining what may be termed the moral capabilities of our nature, and would prevent their falling into those absurd and misanthropic conclusions which those persons are apt to draw, who have never been instructed to distinguish between the use and abuse of the passions. We cannot too often nor too warmly recommend this study, so essential to self knowledge.

The chapter on Self-command, with which this work closes, includes many valuable remarks. As a specimen, we extract a passage in which the two vices of pride and vanity are ably delineated, and their characteristic differences well defined. After having observed that these vices, though bearing a near resemblance, as being modifications of excessive self-estimation, are yet in many respects very different from each other, the author thus proceeds:

‘ The proud man is sincere, and in the bottom of his heart, is convinced of his own superiority; though it may sometimes be difficult

does, however, his falsehoods are by no means so innocent. They are all mischievous, and meant to lower other people. He is full of indignation at the unjust superiority, as he thinks it, which is given to them. He views them with malignity and envy, and, in talking of them, often endeavours, as much as he can, to extenuate and lessen whatever are the grounds upon which their superiority is supposed to be founded. Whatever tales are circulated to their disadvantage, though he seldom forges them himself, yet he often takes pleasure in believing them, is by no means unwilling to repeat them, and even sometimes with some degree of exaggeration. The worst falsehoods of vanity are all what we call white lies: those of pride, whenever it condescends to falsehood, are all of the opposite complexion.

As in the present age both Pride and Vanity are extremely prevalent, especially the latter, we regard these pictures as meriting a careful study.

ART. VIII. *Practical Rules for the Management and Medical Treatment of Negroe Slaves, in the Sugar Colonies.* By a Professional Planter. 8vo. pp. 470. 8s. Boards. Verner and Hood.

NOT only the feelings of humanity, but the still more powerful incitement of interest, must forcibly direct our attention to the topics treated in this volume. The situation in which the West Indian slaves are placed, as well as the natural peculiarities in their physical constitution, point them out as requiring a mode of management, both in health and in sickness, different from that which is applicable to Europeans; yet, among the numerous publications that have appeared on the climate and diseases of the West Indies, no author of much eminence or respectability, as far as we recollect, has expressly devoted his attention to this subject. We will not assert that the book now before us in every respect supplies this deficiency, but we can safely say that it contains a body of useful information, on a variety of important topics connected with the management of negroes, that, we believe, has not before been given to the public in so convenient and accessible a form.

The work is arranged in two parts, the first of which 'suggests rules for the management of negroes in health, the second for their treatment in sickness.' Part I. is divided into nine chapters, in which the following subjects are respectively discussed: general observations on negroe slaves, on the seasoning of negroes, on their diet, clothing, lodging, breeding, labour, discipline, and religion.—In the first chapter, the author takes some pains to prove that it would be impossible to cultivate the West Indies by white men, at least by such as

were free. He grounds his opinion partly on the unhealthiness of the climate, and partly on the consideration that it would be impossible to hold out to any man a sufficient inducement to engage voluntarily in the kind and degree of labour which are necessary to be endured. The fact may probably be as it is here stated: but, granting it to be the case, justice and humanity would certainly draw from it a very different conclusion from that to which this author resorts. We shall not, however, enter on a discussion respecting the merits of the slave trade; we have nothing new to urge on the subject; and it is not the object of the work now under our consideration. The evil is to be regarded as existing, and we are only anxious to use every means in our power to obviate particular effects that may be derived from it, without attempting to throw down the whole system.

Among these evils, one of the most enormous is the mortality of the slaves during what is called their seasoning. It is allowed by the present author, who does not appear disposed to magnify the grievance, that, on the most moderate calculation, not fewer than one-fourth of the slaves die within three or four years after their arrival in the West Indies. This murderous system, he conceives, may be in a great measure remedied by bestowing more care on the health and comforts of these unfortunate beings; and, as he remarks, 'so great a waste of the species, for a purpose merely commercial, though perhaps justifiable enough on those principles which usually govern in matters of national concern, is certainly not very reconcileable to humanity.' The circumstances, to which he particularly recommends the attention to be directed, are the diseases produced by the passage, by change of climate and diet, by labour, by severity, and suicide. On each of these points, he offers remarks which are judicious, and, as we conceive, very likely to produce the desired effect.

Much in the same strain are the observations contained in the chapters on diet, lodging, and clothing. We clearly discover from them to what an excessive extent the privations of the negroes had been carried; while they strongly indicate that not only humanity but interest requires the adoption of a very different system. It is indeed to this latter motive that the author generally appeals; not so much, we imagine, from being himself deficient in feeling, but from a conviction that considerations of this nature would be entirely lost on those to whom this work is more immediately addressed.

The chapter which treats on the breeding of negroes is particularly deserving of notice, in every point of view. We may conclude from it, that, by a moderate degree of attention

only to the comforts of the slaves, their numbers might be recruited without the aid of fresh importation; and that the increased price, at which new slaves must now be purchased, renders it highly important for the planters to use every means to produce this end. Could this be accomplished, much of the evils of West Indian slavery would be abolished.—The frequent occurrence of Tetanus to the children of negroes shortly after their birth, a disease which proves almost certainly fatal to them, presents a formidable obstacle to their increase. The author recommends plunging in the sea water as an almost certain preventative of this disease; and so simple a remedy deserves an ample trial.

From the chapter on Discipline, we may acquire a tolerably full idea of the degree to which the sufferings of the negroes are generally extended; and we learn that a great part of this severity is not only unnecessary, but even prejudicial to the interests of the owners. The writer indeed almost universally condemns the use of the whip; an instrument which appears at present to be applied to the negroes with at least *as much* freedom as to any beasts of burden.

The second part of the work commences with some observations on the peculiarities in the constitution and diseases of negroes. Either from their natural conformation, or from their habits of life, (probably from an union of these causes,) we find that they are endued with a nervous system of less sensibility, and are less affected by medicines and by external impressions, than even the most hardy among the whites. They are not so liable to be infected by fever, but are more apt to be attacked by severe bowel complaints, and obstinate diseases of the skin.—A short section is allotted to the consideration of each malady to which the negroes are liable; and after a description of its leading symptoms, we have an account of its remedies and modes of prevention; the whole detailed in a popular and intelligible style, containing much useful information, without any attempt at the refinements of medical speculation. The book is indeed intended rather for the perusal of the planter, than that of the professional man; and the writer strongly recommends the planters themselves to acquire some portion of medical knowledge. Though we are no friends to popular medicine in general, yet in this case we agree in the propriety of the advice: attentive observation may seize the moment in which a remedy of easy application may prevent a disease of magnitude and danger: professional assistance cannot at all times be procured; and the rapid progress of tropical diseases admits of no delay.

Without

Without entering on a minute analysis of this part of the volume, we may remark that the directions are in general simple and intelligible, but they do not profess much originality, nor profound observation; and we feel justified in confidently recommending this publication to all those who are concerned in the management of West Indian estates. The writer seems to possess a considerable share of sense and humanity, though not strictly entitled to the character either of a philosopher or a philanthropist. With regard to his style, which in such a work is perhaps scarcely a fair object of criticism, it has the important merit of being perspicuous; and it displays the character, as the author intended, of a familiar address to persons who are not in the habit of much reasoning or reflection.

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ART. IX. *Correspondence between Frances, Countess of Hartford, (afterward Duchess of Somerset,) and Henrietta Louisa, Countess of Pomfret, between the Years 1738 and 1741.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1805.

PERHAPS no country in the world has produced a greater number of sensible and accomplished women than Great Britain; and we think that this is a circumstance which does honour to our native isle. The cultivated understandings of our females shew that they are not, and ought not to be degraded as women are in other countries; and indeed they often convince us that, although in their organic structure they are "the weaker vessels," the mental jewels which they include are not less valuable than those which belong to masculine bodies. The Correspondence before us displays not merely all the politeness and good breeding which are to be expected from people of rank, but evinces nice observation and good sense; and though its contents are not all equally interesting or striking, the remarks which both Ladies occasionally make are creditable to their minds and hearts.

The MSS. from which these Letters are printed are the property of the Burslem family, of Imber House, Wilts; and the editor, Mr. Bingley, of Christ-church, has prefixed to the first volume concise prefatory memoirs of the two countesses, between whom this epistolary intercourse was maintained. From them we collect the following information:

\* Frances, Countess of Hartford, and afterwards Duchess of Somerset, was the eldest of the two daughters and coheirs of the honorable Henry Thynne, only son of Thomas, first viscount Weymouth, by Grace, only daughter and heir of sir George Strode, of Leveston in Dorsetshire. She was married about the year 1713, to Algernon

lord Hartford, eldest son of Charles then duke of Somerset, a young nobleman distinguished for every amiable virtue that could adorn his rank.

‘The fruits of this marriage were, first, a daughter, lady Elizabeth Seymour, born in November 1716, who afterwards became duchess of Northumberland; and a son, George Seymour, viscount Beauchamp, born on the eleventh of September 1725. He died of the small pox, which seized him at Bologna, during his travels on the Continent, and carried him off the evening of his birth-day on which he had completed his nineteenth year.

‘Not long after her marriage, lady Hartford became one of the ladies of the bedchamber to Caroline, the queen of king George the Second, then princess of Wales. She continued in this office till the death of the queen, which took place in the month of November 1737, when both she and the countess of Pomfret (also of the bedchamber) retired from the bustle and jealousies of the court, to enjoy the more satisfactory comforts of domestic life. They appear to have been much attached to their royal mistress, whose death they each speak of in their letters, in terms of sincere regret.’

This lady distinguished herself by her amiable interference in behalf of the poet Savage, as recorded in his life by Johnson. She is said to have made various acquirements in literature, and to have had some taste for poetical composition: but the editor, aware that, if we are to decide on the evidence produced, the character of Lady Hartford as a poet would not stand high, endeavours to obviate criticism by observing that ‘the specimens contained in the present volumes are not, perhaps, the most favourable ones that could be adduced.’ We can only say that, if Mr. Bingley could produce better specimens, he should, for the credit of Lady H., have given us a poetical *bonne bouche*. This lady died in 1754.

‘Henrietta Louisa, Countess of Pomfret, was the only surviving child of John lord Jefferys of Wem, and lady Charlotte Herbert, daughter of Phillip, earl of Pembroke and Montgomery. Her grandfather was the lord Chancellor who bore so conspicuous a part in the reign of James the Second.

‘In the year 1720 she was united in marriage to Thomas Fermor, lord Lempster, who, in the subsequent year, was created earl of Pomfret, or Pontefract, in the county of York. This nobleman was afterwards elected a knight of the Bath; and in September 1727, was appointed Master of the Horse to Caroline, queen of George the Second, to whom also lady Pomfret was one of the ladies of the bedchamber.

‘On the death of the queen, 1737, both lady Pomfret and lady Hartford retired from public life; and the present letters inform us, that it was after this period that the close degree of intimacy commenced, to which we are indebted for their being written. The former lady says, in one of them, “I do not grieve that our friendship did not begin sooner; since I am certain it would have excited the

good-

*good-nature* of a great many people, though they had not cared one farthing about either of us, to have made it their business, by a thousand lies on both sides, to inform us how dangerous a person each was to the other, and how unfit for a friend."

This is a severe, but not unfounded stricture on the morals of a court.

The correspondence between these two ladies commenced soon after Lord Pomfret and his family left England, in order to reside on the continent, and continued for about three years; the travelled or rather travelling lady beginning her epistolary career at Monts near Paris, on the 2d of September O. S., or 13th N. S. 1733, and closing it at Brussels Oct. 6, 1741, N. S. From Paris, Lady Pomfret accompanied her husband to Lyons, Aix, Marseilles, Genoa, Sienna, Florence, Rome, Bologna, Venice, Inspruch, Augsburg, Frankfort, and Brussels.

Lady P. appears to have been a most indefatigable and punctual correspondent; and her letters, though written in haste, and without study, discover the investigating mind of the traveller, and the happy art of blending entertainment with instruction. Her anecdotes are related with ease, and her details are given with accuracy. She has an evident advantage over her friend at home, by enjoying a wider and more varied field of observation: but, if Lady Hartford's letters are less amusing, they are not less sensible.

It will occur to our readers that Lord Pomfret's route through France, Italy, the Tyrol, and Germany, has since been often pursued; and that manners, customs, and governments have undergone such revolutions, that in some degree the word *obsolete* belongs to the accounts here detailed. In justice, however, to this lady, we must observe that it is impossible to read her travels without interest; without admitting her to possess an excellent understanding, a cultivated taste, and a most amiable disposition; nor without assigning to her works a place by the side of her acquaintance Lady Mary Wortley Montague, whom she much resembles in her easy mode of narration.

These ladies seem to vie with each other in endeavours to communicate reciprocal pleasure, each according to her respective situation. Lady Pomfret, supplied with the usual materials of the grand tour, writes of palaces, pictures, statues, churches, popes, priests, ceremonies, processions, superstition, convents, nuns, &c. Lady Hartford, in return, makes remarks on her friend's accounts, paints her own retirement and occupations, and gives amusing anecdotes of the fashionable world, the intrigues of the court, the party measures, and the politics of the day.

When wicked protestants travel, they cannot help remarking the *faith* and *piety* of catholic countries, which are carried to an excess that at least excites our astonishment. During Lady Pomfret's residence at Florence, she transmits several specimens of Catholic credulity, of which we shall copy one :

' Palazzo Ridolfi, Jan. 1, N. S., 1741.

' The weather has been so extremely bad of late, that, though two days beyond the usual time have elapsed, the post is not arrived yet. These violent storms and rains the priests and mob attribute to the devils which the Virgin of the Imprunetta is casting out of possessed men and women; and which, in their return to hell, make this disturbance in the air. As this is a lady with whom I am but lately become acquainted, and as at present I have little else to say, I shall allow her to fill up a part of my letter.

' A great many years ago—so many that nobody can tell the exact number—the people of Florence began to build a church; but whatever advance they made in the day, (like Penelope's web) was destroyed in the night. Upon this ill success, they determined to take two young unbroken steers, and yoke them together with a great stone hanging down between their necks; and, setting them off, wherever they should stop to erect there the church. In this they did very right, for the worship they intended was certainly fitter for the judgment of beasts than of men.—But to my story. The place at which the animals became tired was about seven miles from the city, among some prune trees belonging to the family of the Buondelmonti. Here they set to work to clear the ground, and dig the foundation—when a lamentable voice struck their ears from below. On this, one of the workmen threw away his pickaxe; and moving the loose earth more lightly, found the image of the Virgin Mary in *terra cotta*, with a child in her arms, and a scar on her forehead that had occasioned the *aforsaid* cry. This wonderful discovery made them proceed with great alacrity in their work: and she had soon not only a large habitation, but a new order was constituted to her honour and service, with great and unusual privileges annexed to it. And upon all general calamities ever since, she is conducted with great pomp into the city of Florence, and remains in the Duomo till, upon frequent prayers and remonstrances, she is so good as to remove or remedy the evil. The inundation I wrote you an account of, being the occasion of her present coming amongst us, her entry was preceded by all the religious orders, two and two; the gentlemen and others carrying lighted flambeaus. On each side the guards were drawn out: the streets (*made clean*) were crowded with the common people; and the windows were adorned with tapestry, damask, &c., and filled with ladies. In a large box, about the size of a woman,—covered with seven rich mantles, having as many candles stuck before, and a canopy over it,—passed the *Dama, incognita*; for as this image is only a tile, the priests very justly fear that it would rather raise contempt than veneration if it was seen, and therefore have spread amongst the people a notion that whoever sees it is immediately struck blind. She still remains at the cathedral; whither all the *great* vulgar, and the *little*, go to pay their devotions.

devotions. But the weather, as I said before, having not at all mended since her arrival, they have deferred her return till the sun shines, that it may be attributed to her; and in the mean time they find out people possessed with devils, that she may divert herself in driving them out. She was followed in her march by the senate of forty-eight, in their crimson robes, with all the officers of justice.

‘ This abominable nonsense I have always forborne to trouble you with; though in all the Italian towns, I have seen instances of it. I remember, when I was at Lucca, a knight of Malta who led me about the cathedral (which is a very ancient one) perceiving that I looked at what appeared to me a better sort of sentry box, standing on one side of the middle aisle, told me that it was the repository of the *Folto Santo*; and perceiving, by my manner of answering, that I did not understand what he meant, he told me that a great sculptor having designed a crucifix, and not being able to perform it to his mind, went to bed very much discontented; and on the next morning this was brought to him by angels, ready-made, from heaven. I asked of what material it was formed? he answered, of wood; and I very gravely replied, I did not know before that trees grew in heaven. He said (believing me really surprised at my new discovery) that God had a mind to shew his power. This, once a year, and once only, is exposed; at which time, they say, people are so eager to see it, that, crowding in, many break their limbs, and some lose their lives: yet at the same time their glory is to admit no Jews, Jesuits, nor inquisition, in their territory.

‘ You have now had enough of wonders; but surely it is the greatest, that rational creatures can thus divest themselves of reason. Having given you this specimen, I shall trouble you no more upon the subject, whatever miracle I may encounter before I have the pleasure of assuring you in person of the sincere attachment with which

‘ I am yours,

‘ H. L. POMFRET.’

The observation of Lady Hartford on this letter is equally in the style of the incredulous heretic:—‘ I no longer am surprised that Italy abounds with atheists.’

At Rome, the procession or cavalcade of the Pope attracts Lady P.’s notice, and is well described:

‘ This day we dined at twelve, in order to be with the contessa Bolognetti at two, who carried us into one of the side buildings of the Capitol; the whole of which was hung, on the outside of the walls, with crimson velvet, and damask trimmed with gold. From one of the windows we saw the cavalcade of the pope going to take possession of St. John Lateran’s church. The procession was (as all the processions are) composed of too many parts to be exactly remembered; but, altogether, it was very pretty. The white horses, almost covered with red velvet, embroidered with gold and silver, that are the yearly tribute for the kingdom of Naples, and of which there are twelve now living, that went one by one: the gentlemen of the pope’s chamber, &c., that rode, dressed in red, trimmed with ermine:

the nobility of Rome in black with a great quantity of black silk lace on their habits : the bishops in purple, with green silk tassels in their black hats : the cardinals in scarlet, with their hats and mule-furniture of the same the conservatori in yellow lined with red, and short gowns of the same : the great constable Colonna, in a particular robe of black and yellow : the marchese Nari, who by hereditary right carries the standard of the church, with the dukes of Strozzi and Corsini captains of the guard, on each side of him—all three in bright armour, engraved, and gilt in the ornamental parts, and very rich robes of crimson, embroidered thick with gold and silver where the armour did not cover : the light-horse, which I described before, with the addition of double plumes of red and white feathers all round their hats : the horse-guards in blue, lined with red, and trimmed with gold : the open chariot, the chair, the horse, the coach, and the litter, of the pope, all crimson and gold ; besides another litter of the same that he was carried in (preceded by a great cross), dressed in his pontifical robes, and blessing as he went the shouting, kneeling crowd : with the several companies of foot-soldiers, clothed the same as ours are in England, who closed the procession : made altogether a much finer appearance than I expected. Notwithstanding it has been the occasion of a vast concourse of people from all parts of Italy, and the stay of many other strangers, I take it to be no otherwise a religious ceremony, than that it is partly composed of priests ; which, as the government is composed of them too, is absolutely necessary on the sovereign's taking possession of his office : and this is certainly the intention of it. Could the equestrian statue of Marcus Aurelius, that stands in the area of the Capitol, have been endowed with knowledge, how different would he have thought of this high priest (who would not venture in his open chariot because there was a little wind) from his predecessor Julius Cæsar !—and how would he have blushed to have been in the same posture, with the ten old, tottering, red hats that attended the now *pontifex maximus* !

The Countess might have added, could St. Peter have looked out of his grave, would he have been able to recognize in the Pope his representative ?—Since this period, his Holiness has been “ shorne of his beams.”

By way of prospect, or verbal landscape, we shall present our readers with this Lady's delineation of the Apennines :

‘ We had not travelled far before we found ourselves in the very midst of the Apennines—the most wonderful and most enchanting country I ever saw, and far beyond what any person can imagine who has not seen it. The mountains are of prodigious height, and so intermixed, that there seems no passage through ; yet we threaded them, sometimes climbing, sometimes descending, but oftener running on a road cut in the middle of them : some are barren, some covered with common wood, and others with corn and olives. In the bottom we had here and there a river, which had made itself a bed through meadows full of cattle ; nor were there wanting villages nor corn fields in the most unexpected places, on the sides, and even on the tops, of mountains ; the summits of which having gained, and thinking nothing could

could be above them, we often only found ourselves at the bottom of others still loftier. Here hermitages would appear as if stuck into the cleft of the rock, and old ruined fortresses that have scarcely left a name. Below, the fir and cypress, joined with other trees, made a gloomy retreat for the torrents that fell roaring from above; and the evening sun gave a lustre to the whole, which finished in a rich and delightful plain, where the rising grain, the gentle murmurs of the river, the green meadows, the elms twined round with vines, the solitary chapels, with here and there some broken piece of ancient sculpture; the rural villages, and their simple inhabitants; the singing of the birds, and the natural perfumes that arose from the sweet herbs and flowers,—both soothed and waked the soul, to find and to adore the Great Creator.\*

In her passage through the Tyrol, Lady Pomfret visited the castle of Ambras, near Inspruch; and she gives a full recital of its curious contents, among which is much of that armour which was in use 'before gunpowder blew up knight-hood.' She also affords us an idea of the climate of the Tyrol, by writing to her friend that they found winter in the end of June, were obliged to have the stove lighted, and to have a feather-bed to cover them instead of a quilt. We must, however, abstain from farther extracts from Lady P.'s contributions\*, in order to afford room for one specimen of Lady Hartford's letters:

\* Windsor Forest, Oct. 7, N. S. 1739.

'How shall I describe to you, my dear lady Pomfret, the sentiments that arise in my heart at the reading your letters? I feel a mixture of esteem, affection, admiration, and sorrow, to think how many years passed by in which I might possibly have enjoyed the happiness of your conversation, or even been admitted to your friendship, had I sought it with that care and assiduity which I am now truly sensible it deserves. How blind was I to my own interest, and to a merit which I scarcely had leisure (after it had waked me from my lethargy) to be acquainted with, till, as a just punishment for my former want of discernment, I was doomed to live banished from it! But the generosity of your disposition inclines you to alleviate a chastisement which I too well deserved, by allowing me a place in your memory, though I am exiled from your sight, and permitting me to hope for a share in your heart, which (if I know my own) I would not part with for all the wealth and splendor of the east.

'I do not wonder that you shed tears at the profession of the unhappy votress at Genoa, since I could scarcely restrain mine at the

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\* In one of this lady's epistles, Vol. i. p. 163, we find a translation by Mr. Horton, Chaplain to the English Factory at Leghorn, of Metastasio's celebrated poem intitled the *Indifferent*. Mr. H.'s performance is better than some, and not equal to others, of the various transmigrations into our language, which these beautiful verses have undergone.—In Vol. ii. p. 23. we have another version of this ballad, without any name affixed to it; which, we agree with these two lady-critics, is better than the first, though far short of the original.

recital of her sufferings. I am afraid solitude is not a cure for love ; but I think the inclination to it a very natural effect of that passion, when it is unsuccessful : it leaves the mind in a state of languor and melancholy that makes it shun society, and retire from mankind, to indulge the idea of what it ought most carefully to avoid, and which probably it would endeavour to free itself from, were it not generally attended with a depression of spirits, that is to the mind what fetters are to the body, and prevents it from using sufficient motion to put itself in a more easy situation.

‘ In return for your story of the nun, I will relate to you one which I had within these few days from a friend of mine, a woman of great veracity and good sense : she assured me of the truth of it from her own knowledge.

‘ A gentleman in Suffolk had an estate of two thousand pounds a-year ; and an only son, who was brought up with the expectation of being heir to that fortune after his father’s death. This took place when he was just four-and twenty : but, when he came to look into his inheritance, he found the whole property so involved, that he had only left four hundred pounds a year, which proved to be in church lands. He lived on this for about twelve months, but during that time was very melancholy. He then declared to his friends that it was against his conscience to enjoy the revenue of what had belonged to the church, and that he could make himself easy in no other way but by restoring the lands ; which he did, in spite of the persuasion of all his relations to the contrary, and left himself with no more than an annuity of fifty pounds. In the neighbourhood there was a quaker, who always went once, and sometimes twice a-year into Yorkshire, on business. At one house in that country he was received upon a footing of great intimacy, by an old gentleman, who had an only daughter, that was to be his heiress—elegant in her person, of good temper, and well accomplished. The quaker one day asked him why he did not get this young lady married. The gentleman replied, that it was what he wished to do, but he was determined never to dispose of her but to a man whose principles he approved, and who would come and settle upon the estate. If he could find such a person, he would give his daughter to him, though he was not worth a shilling. The quaker related to him the history of his neighbour : and the old gentleman was so much delighted with his character, that he desired the quaker to bring him to his house the next time he came ; and, if the young people liked each other, it should be a match. The honest quaker returned home, and with great pleasure told the young gentleman the prospect of this good fortune ; but was surprised to find all the arguments he could use wanted force to prevail on him to go. He declared that he would rather live upon his small annuity all his days, than marry a woman he did not previously love, though she possessed the wealth of the Indies. When the time drew near for the quaker to go again into Yorkshire, he applied to a relation of the young gentleman with whom he lived, and shewed him several letters from the lady’s father, requesting him to bring his friend along with him. By the importunity of this relation, and the quaker’s entreaty, the youth was at length prevailed on to accompany him ; but under a feigned name,

name, and only as an acquaintance whom he had met by accident on the road. Matters being thus settled, he set out with the quaker, and was introduced to the old gentleman and his daughter. They were all three so well pleased with each other, that they soon became better acquainted, and the young gentleman discovered who he was. The marriage was quickly concluded; and he now enjoys eighteen hundred pounds a year, which his wife brought him, besides a considerable sum of money. They have now lived together six years in perfect happiness, and have two children.

‘ F. HARTFORD.’

This lady also courted the Muse, but her poetry is not equal to her prose. Dr. Johnson, in his *Life of Thomson*, (whose *Spring* is dedicated to Lady H.) rather invidiously relates an anecdote that attributes to her a *vanity* which, though in some degree the common weakness of poets, could never be suspected to inhabit a mind so correct and well informed as that which she possessed.

‘ His words (says the Editor) are these: “*Spring* was published in the next year with a dedication to lady Hartford; whose practice it was to invite every summer some poet into the country, to bear her verses, and assist her studies. This honor was one summer conferred on Thomson, who took more delight in carousing with lord Hartford and his friends, than assisting her ladyship’s poetical operations, and therefore never received another summons.”

The fact probably is true. Thomson preferred good wine to indifferent poetry, and the pleasures of the bottle to those of recitation; and Lady Hartford, mortified at this discovery, scratched Thomson out of her books. As her fame has a better foundation than that which is raised on the edifice of poetry, it will be little affected by the critic’s sneer.

In taking our leave of these ladies, we shall only add that, if their letters have a certain etiquette of style, or contain studied compliments, and what must now be regarded as overstrained expressions of politeness, it should be remembered that these traits must in some degree be attributed to the manners of the age, and to the education of a court.

ART. X. *The Farmer’s Calendar*: containing the Business necessary to be performed on various Kinds of Farms during every Month of the Year. By Arthur Young, Esq., F.R.S. Secretary to the Board of Agriculture, &c. &c. A new Edition, greatly enlarged and improved. 8vo. pp. 604. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips, 1804.

ON turning to the *General Index* to the Old Series of the M. R. we find an account of a “*Farmer’s Calendar*; by an Experienced Farmer,” in Vol. xlv. p. 445, which was published

lished in the year 1771: but, after such a lapse of time, we are not certain that this is the original edition to which Mr. Young refers. It is not, however, improbable: for he informs us, in his advertisement of the work before us, that, in various parts of the Correspondence inserted in the "Annals of Agriculture" during the last fifteen years, he has been often solicited to give a new edition of his Calendar, and as often formed the resolution of doing it: but that the new improvements, which have taken place, made so many and such great alterations necessary, while other and more pressing employments required his attention, that he has hitherto been prevented from executing the task. Having at last completed it, he hopes that the reader will find it, in its present form, worthy of his attention.

As an agricultural remembrancer, such a work, if executed with knowledge and care, must be acceptable to the farmer; and there is no doubt, considering Mr. Young's extensive observation and experience, that he is capable of furnishing useful hints and rules. The subjects noticed in each month are numerous, including a detailed view of the whole business of a farm. The character, however, which Mr. Young endeavours to form, is not that of the merely industrious and plodding farmer; for he advises his Agriculturist, in the months of January and June, to travel to observe the well-cultivated countries, to be present at the sheep-shearings of the Duke of Bedford and of Mr. Coke, and to furnish himself with a laboratory, to occupy his winter evenings. Yet he is aware that this pleasurable mode of gathering knowledge may lead to ideas of expence and dissipation, not compatible with the sober pursuits of his calling; he therefore warns the young farmer of his danger, and observes that 'if after an excursion, which has carried him into great, and, what is called good company, he returns home not quite so well satisfied with home as he was before, he has contracted a taint that may be worse than the scab among his sheep.'

We copy a part of Mr. Young's admirable advice on Family Arrangement; which we recommend to the serious attention of every young farmer:

'Many accidental circumstances gradually bring into a certain train the common habits of domestic life; but it would often be more advantageous to lay down a plan to be pursued within doors as well as without: such ideas may not always be practicable, but the mere aim will not be without its use. Our young farmer, on entering his farm, must necessarily arrange his plan of life and house-keeping, a subject which should not be wholly omitted, yet admits but a few cursory hints that may possibly give a turn to his reflections, and, being properly worked on in his mind, may possibly pro-

duce a beneficial effect on his conduct. It is not every man that has the power of thinking to any marked utility ; but he, whose mind is inquisitive, may think to advantage on every subject. A prudent economy, free from all sordid avarice, will by every one be admitted as right ; but it demands some reflection on entering life, or a farm, so to arrange every-day circumstances, that they shall flow from the plan adopted ; or at least that such plan shall have no tendency to counteract. In regard to house-keeping, the safest way is to assign a stated weekly sum for it, which should on no account be exceeded. An annual one for his own dress and personal expences ; the same for his wife and young children. And he should, in prudence, keep the whole allotted expence so much *within* his probable income, as to possess an accumulating fund for contingencies, children, &c. &c. And, if he expects the blessing of the Almighty on his industry, he will not forget the poor in such distribution : I do not mean by *rates*, but by *charity* : and this hint demands one observation : a very material evil attending the support of the poor by rates, is the natural tendency they have essentially to lessen, if not to cut up charity by the root ; that they do this in many hearts cannot be doubted ; but it is a horrible, and a national evil. Let our young farmer accustom his mind to very different reflections, remembering that what he pays in poor-rates he is forced to pay, and that it is a part of his calculation in stocking his farm : if he expects to prosper (but not from that motive *only*, or he might as well close his purse) let him so accustom himself to kind offices and assistance to his poor neighbours, whoever they may work with, as to gain a habit of reaping pleasure from his free benevolence.

‘ In such calculations as I have hinted at, he may safely estimate his profit at 10 per cent. on his capital ; from 400*l.* his income derived from his farm ought to be 400*l.* a year. He should lay up 50*l.* and as much more as his better interest may permit. To expend this in *extra* improvements, may be the most advantageous investment, provided he owns his farm, or has a long lease, not otherwise.

‘ To attend markets and a few fairs, is a necessary part of a farmer's business ; but to a young man it is a very dangerous part ; it is too apt to give the evil habits of drinking and dissipation : evil company is every where to be found, and many a farmer has been ruined by a want of a careful selection of his acquaintance, and by not avoiding the contraction of habits which cannot be indulged with safety. As a safeguard against all evils of this tendency, an habitual attention to the duties of religion will have more efficacy than all the philosophic morality which so much abounds upon the tongues of many : by religion, I mean that of the national church, the most excellent that has been any where established for the instruction of the human species. He can have no true friend that will not advise him to keep the Sabbath piously and strictly himself, and make his family do the same : many a judge has traced the origin of crimes that have brought labourers to the gallows, to Sabbath-breaking ; and, if the source of failures among farmers were as well explored, they would be traced to the same spring. Serve God on Sunday as you serve yourself on Monday : if you are a pagan, a deist, a moral philosopher, you are,

to a certain degree, in reason, answerable for the paganism, deism, or moral philosophy of your children and servants; if a christian, you are surely the same for their christianity: you may gain by this, but cannot lose.'

This volume is furnished with an appendix, containing various useful tables, and with a copious index.

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ART. XI. *The Constitution of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Civil and Ecclesiastical.* By Francis Plowden, Esq., Barrister at Law. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Ridgway.

CHANCE has long kept out of our view this well-intentioned and useful work: but, as its subject is not temporary, we trust that the oversight will not prove to be of any serious detriment. Mr. Plowden, though he will not join us in religious communion, holds as strongly as any of us the soundness of our political constitution; of which he is a warm admirer, a zealous vindicator, and frequently an able expounder. He appears to regard our civil regimen with as much fondness as any other subject, and in truth his being a catholic is no reason why he should not; for its outlines were formed, many of its most admired parts were shaped, and its genius and spirit were acquired, while the religion in which he believes was dominant. That which the public profession of his faith, when it ceased, left imperfect, the dread of its return in other new circumstances afterward achieved; and it was this dread, which at the time was by no means causeless, but which it would be now as ridiculous to harbour as that of magic or witchcraft, that occasioned the complete establishment of our civil rights.

Mr. Plowden is a decided though a temperate whig, a staunch though a cautious adherent to the principles of the glorious revolution, and a dauntless though discreet asserter of the principles then brought into action. We are glad to find that he does not countenance, in any degree, the doctrine so studiously inculcated a few years ago in one of the temples of the law; we refer to those popular lessons in which the notion of an original compact was scouted as an unfounded and pernicious tenet. Treading in the steps of the venerable defenders of British liberties, he cherishes and maintains this doctrine, which rests on principles friendly to popular rights, and hostile to abuses of power:

' Suffice it for the present to say, that the real basis of the political and civil power or sovereignty which exists in each state, is the original agreement, compact, or contract of the society or community, which

which forms that state, to depute and delegate the rights, which were in them individually in the state of nature, to those, whose duty it should become, to rule, protect, and preserve the community. For in this consists the whole duty both of the supreme and subordinate magistracy. It would be nugatory to question the reality of this original contract, because the particular time and place, when and where it was entered into, cannot be named, nor the written charter or document, in which it is expressed, be produced for the satisfaction and benefit of future generations. "The chief question is not, whether there was ever such a contract formally and actually made: but whether mankind had not a right to make it: for if they had, civil government, in the ordinary course of things, could be rightfully founded upon nothing else, but this, or what is equivalent to it, a *tacit consent of the governed*. And since the latter must be of the same effect with the other, this may be sufficient for our present purpose, unless persons think fit to call also for the *original draught of a tacit consent*." The actual assemblage of the multitude forming themselves into a particular society, was the formal ratification of this original contract, though it were done by tacit consent; and by this each individual of our ancestors became bounden to the power of the whole community, or, in other words, to the sovereignty of the state. The free continuance of each of their successors in the community is the bond, by which they become more solemnly and firmly obligated to the contract, by grounding their tacit consent upon the valuable considerations and daily increasing advantages of the experience and improvements of their predecessors. This is a multiplying principle, that acquires vigor from every incident of human life, as each revolving day brings with it fresh reasons and motives, why the living members of the community should ratify and confirm the original contract entered into by their deceased ancestors. The perpetuation therefore of the community, is the unceasing renovation and confirmation of the original contract, in which it was founded.'

Mr. P. quotes from an anonymous author the passage which we subjoin; and which, though quaint and inelegant, inculcates a maxim that can never be too much present to the mind of Britons:

"There is nothing ought to be so dear to the Commons of *Great Britain* as a free parliament; that is, a *House of Commons* every way free and independent either of the Lords or ministry, &c. *free* in their persons; *free* in their estates; *free* in their elections; *free* in their returns; *free* in their assembling; *free* in their speeches, debates, and determinations; *free* to complain of offenders: *free* in their prosecutions for offences; and therein *free* from the fear or influence of others, how great soever; *free* to guard against the incroachments of arbitrary power; *free* to preserve the liberties and properties of the subject; and yet *free* to part with a share of those properties, when necessary for the service of the public; nor can he be justly esteemed a representative of the people of *Britain*, who does not sincerely endeavour to defend their just rights and liberties against all invasions whatsoever."

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The author exhibits in a very just light the revolution of 1688, and very properly exposes some mystic jargon which occurs amid the luminous representations of that event by Mr. Burke. Indeed, Mr. Plowden's observations on this head form the most valuable portion of his volume.—He contends that those who were instrumental in effecting that revolution, and their successors, were so far from seeking to throw a veil over the principles on which they acted in that memorable proceeding, that they courted opportunities of proclaiming and ratifying them. Of this nature he considers the two acts of Queen Anne, which make it treason to deny the competence of parliament to change the succession, the proclamation declaring the church not to be in danger, and the occurrences on the trial of Sacheverel,—as well the preamble prefixed by the Commons to the articles of impeachment, as the judgment of the Peers. He observes that the revolution 'gave no rights to the community, which the community did not before possess; but, by affording an opportunity of calling these rights into action, like all other practical examples, it threw light upon the principles, from which the rights themselves originated.'

With regard to the principles on which the parties to this event acted, they were, he says, 'prior to the constitution itself, and fully adequate to every purpose of preserving and improving it, as the exigencies of circumstances, and the wishes of the community might require. The facts which gave rise to the Revolution were such, as in human probability never will again recur in that combination, that shall occasion another such Revolution upon the strength of precedent.'

Mr. P.'s view of the nature of this great measure will appear from this passage :

'We must never lose sight of the great pervading maxim of our Constitution, *that the sovereignty of all power not only originated from the people, but continues unalienably to reside with them.* Since the first institution of civil or political government upon earth, there never existed an instance, in which the transcendency of this sovereign right in the people was so clearly demonstrated, as in our Revolution of 1688. For in that temporary dissolution of the government, which was occasioned by the abandonment or dereliction of it by the executive power, the people in reality and practice, carried their rights to an extent far beyond the speculative allowances of the most unconfined theorists. So well satisfied were they of the general tenor of the Constitution and government, that to such parts, as they did not think fit to change and alter, they very wisely endeavoured to add strength, vigor, and authority. But imagination cannot conceive a greater stretch of human power, than to make the King's choice of his own religion (a right which every man possesses independently of the community) the immediate cause of his deprivation of all those benefits and advantages, which

which the community had settled upon him, and which he and his ancestors exercising that same religion, had for many centuries enjoyed in consequence of such settlement; nay, even to such extent did they carry their power, that they excluded the whole line of immediate successors, not for their actual exercise of this first right of man, but because they might by possibility exercise it in the same manner, in which their progenitors had chosen to do it before them. They did not attempt to check, nor forbid, nor prevent the personal adoption or exercise of religion in the individual; but as there could be no sove- reignty enjoyed by any one, without the free consent of the community, so the community determined, that no one, who should in future choose to adopt and follow the Roman catholic religion, should be capable of enjoying the Crown of this realm. The absolute deviation from the constitutional rule of hereditary succession by the exclusion of King James and his heirs, though the nation, for regulating the future succession of the Crown, resorted to a common stock from a remoter heir of the Stuart family, was the most irrefragable proof, that could be given of the right to alter the succession. And certainly it cannot be denied, but that it was an innovation in the Constitution to make the renunciation of a certain religion the *sine qua non* condition of inheriting the Crown; otherwise it could not have descended upon King James the Second, and the few years of his reign must be erased from the annals and statute books of this realm.

We next have the object of the revolution thus stated :

‘The English nation in the year 1689, when the Act of Settlement was passed, were under the general necessity of having some government; but they also enjoyed the general liberty given by God to all mankind of framing their own form of government and deputing and delegating the *sovereign power* (to which God required their submission) to whomsoever they should think proper: in fact they then chose to continue the old form of government and the Constitution, which had been framed by their ancestors: they were as free to alter it entirely, as they were to do it in part: but the parts, which they did alter, evidently were intended for the better preservation of the whole; they were the result of observation and experience, and therefore the proper grounds for forming a discretionary judgment of the means of executing the trusts, that were vested in them, which were to *superintend and preserve the safety and welfare of the community*. The alterations introduced at the Revolution were not properly alterations in the Constitution, but innovations in some of the laws calculated to preserve the Constitution upon a firmer basis; for the Constitution is the more firmly preserved, by how much the dissolution of government is rendered more difficult. The nation had just experienced an actual dissolution of government; and had then to devise the best means in their power and judgment to prevent a repetition of this greatest of all political evils.’

Lastly, Mr. P. enumerates the moral and prudential considerations by which the agents in that great change were actuated, and which furnish at once the motives and the justification of their conduct:

R. & V. Nov. 1805.

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• When at this distance of time we reflect impartially upon the illegal and unconstitutional acts of King James the Second, it is impossible not to see and allow, that he had determinately ceased to execute the trust reposed in him by the nation, that had made him the supreme magistrate to execute and preserve the laws, which were the direct emanations of the general will of the community. For it is evident to demonstration, that the Constitution of England would no longer have been what it was intended to be, had the King been allowed for any reason to act against his coronation oath, to refuse or suspend the statute law by his royal proclamations, and in general to act in violation of the law, and contrary to the inclinations of his people. That government, which by the law of God and nature this community was authorized to choose, and had actually chosen to adopt, could not continue to subsist under such an assumption and usurpation of power by the Crown. They were under no obligation to assume a new form of government, but they were under an obligation of having some government, by the general dispensation of God's providence over mankind. The moral obligation therefore of those persons, who were then the delegates of the community (*i. e.* the members of both Houses of Parliament) was to preserve and secure that form of government, which they knew to be the will and wish of the community to be ruled by; it was consequently their indispensable and superminient duty to remove, as far as in them lay, both the present and future occasions of its dissolution. Our ancestors, in executing this conscientious discharge of their trust, commission, or delegation to superintend and preserve the safety and welfare of the community, could only use their human judgment and discretion to direct their actions: and it was impossible for them under the existing circumstances and their general convictions not to judge, that the profession of the Roman catholic religion was the immediate cause or pretext, why James II. had acted so illegally and unconstitutionally; and therefore their moral duty obliged them to remove and prevent that cause and pretext from operating in like manner upon future sovereigns. Their power could not exceed their delegation: this was from the community, and therefore could affect nothing but such civil rights as they could delegate. It was essentially circumscribed, because it was originally instituted and directed by the law and light of nature implanted by God in every rational being. This is the common rule of duty and action to the Heathen and Christian magistrate. The Christian Revelation made no alteration in the nature, extent, or duties of the *civil* magistrate.'

The second part of this performance respects more particularly those persons who are of the same communion with the author. It is very theological, but contains much curious information, as well as some sensible observations. Mr. P. very properly remarks that no protesting catholic can consistently hold the infallibility of councils; otherwise they must subscribe the horrible decrees of the third and fourth councils of Lateran. This extravagant prerogative, which these assemblies have arrogated, is rejected by the author, except as far as pure matters of faith are regarded; and he reprobates monstrous decrees with becoming

becoming indignation. His remarks on the oath of supremacy, we think, demand the serious attention of every humane and honest man. These are his concluding words on this point :

' Few if any would refuse to take the oath of supremacy, in the true constitutional sense of its actual existence, were it unequivocally to express, that the King is the supreme head of the civil establishment of the church of England. But the deviation of the words, terms, and intent of the oath, from the words, spirit, and effects, of the laws, render it unlawful for a Roman catholic to take it. Be it then no vain hope that parliament may see and remove the cruelty, which operates so severely upon millions of well disposed able and loyal subjects of his Majesty ; that all may be united with one heart and one mind in their efforts to preserve and perpetuate the Constitution of this united kingdom.'

If Mr. Plowden be more fond of accumulating matter than of digesting it, if he be laborious rather than elaborate, and whatever value be assigned to the views which he himself gives of his subject, the young reader should reflect with attention on the testimonies to our admirable civil fabric which are here collected together, whether they proceeded from the heads of the state or the sages of the law, or were borne by foreigners or by natives. They are here detailed from Bracton to Blackstone, from Tacitus to Montesquieu, and from the Angelic Doctor \* down to De Lolme.

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ART. XII. *Sermons and other Miscellaneous Pieces*, by the late Henry Hunter, D. D., Minister of the Scots Church, London Wall. To which are prefixed a Biographical Sketch of his Life, and a Critical Account of his Writings. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Murray.

MANY opportunities † have occurred to us, in the course of our labours, of reporting the literary performances of Dr. Hunter in terms of some commendation. His *Sacred Biography*, his translation of Saurin, &c., and other religious publications, entitled his zeal and exertions in the cause of virtue to general esteem, while he lived ; and we were pleased to bear such frequent testimony to the merits of so laborious and popular a divine. He has now paid " the great

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\* Our good old countryman Fortescue quotes St. Thomas as saying, "*Si referamus ad statum integrum humane nature, qui status innocentia appellatur, in quo non fuisset regale regimen, sed politicum—*;" denoting, by the latter term, a limited mixed government, in opposition to an absolute and simple one.

† See M. R. Vol. vi. N. S. p. 250. and Vol. xl. p. 324. where other references will be found.

last debt;" and the public are here presented with his final offering in these two volumes of sermons, which are introduced by a biographical memoir. From this sketch of the life of Dr. H., we learn that he was born at Culross in Perthshire, Aug. 25, 1741, and died at Bristol, Oct. 27, 1802.

We transcribe the summary of his character and genius :

"Some estimate may be formed of both, from a perusal of his writings, which, however, are still better calculated to afford a just notion of his abilities, than of his disposition. He was a man of uncommon warmth of heart; and of quick and powerful feelings, joined to a mind naturally energetic and commanding. Whatever he felt, he felt deeply : what he attempted, he attempted with the whole power of his mind. He knew not what a half feeling, or a half measure meant. The object which he took up, engaged him for the time, almost to the exclusion of every other, and from the nature of his mind, that object was never of a trivial or paltry nature. He detested every action savouring in the least of meanness, and could rather have borne with the infirmities of a great mind, than with the petty vices of a little one. His views being constantly bent on some important or interesting object, left him little, or no inclination to turn *thence* toward others, to him of less consequence. Hence a complete disregard of money, except to answer some present purpose, either of necessity, or charity : from the great benevolence of his heart, it accordingly happened not unfrequently that if, even when in great want of money, he received a sum more than sufficient to answer the demand of the moment, the remainder was always ready to be shared with the first child of want that appeared. As he despised half measures in his other actions, so he deprecated them in his charities. When he gave, he gave *all*. The objects of his benevolence often departed from him richer than himself, and left him to seek from friendship that assistance which he had bestowed through the irresistible impulses of a warm heart. With such dispositions it will naturally be supposed that his attachments were particularly warm to those more immediately around him. Yet although he delighted above all in the company of his children, no person ever took shelter beneath his roof, even for a short time, without becoming an object of his regard, and sharing in his friendship.

"In the allotment of time he was exact ; in performing a promise even to the smallest engagement, he was most punctual, and would rather put himself to inconvenience, than run the risk of trifling with the time of others ; whatever depended on himself, was sure to be performed ; and often, through his means, when it depended on others : a grand axiom in all his actions was, that whatever good work he began, should never be relinquished, till completed.

"Although in conversation he was uncommonly lively and agreeable, yet Dr. Hunter had not the smallest turn for raillery, or what is termed repartee : perhaps in the whole course of his life, he never made an attempt at a joke ; yet what may appear extraordinary, he possessed a keen relish of those social qualifications when innocently exerted by others, and was an admirable judge of humour, although he possessed none himself.

‘As a pulpit orator, his abilities were of the very first class. If he spoke to the understanding, the admirable division of his subject enabled every hearer to grasp his meaning, and conclusions drawn with almost logical precision overwhelmed the doubts of the most ingenious caviller. If he addressed the feelings, the earnestness of his manner added a double interest to his pathetic exhortations, and carried conviction to the coldest heart. His delivery was uniformly solemn and distinct, not calculated to slide gently into a fashionable ear, but admirably adapted to the general nature of his discourses, to engage profound attention, to awaken deep reflection, and alarm the soul sinking into deceitful security or impenitence. Rich in ideas, and profound and accurate in his observations, he disdained nothing more than to hunt after high sounding words which charm the ear and deceive the understanding without touching the heart. It may be truly said with respect to the general effect of his preaching, that

“Fools who came to scoff remained to pray.”

From this passage, every reader will be disposed to entertain a very favourable opinion of this deceased author, as a sincere and serious Christian, and will not be disposed (to adopt a line of the motto) “to draw his frailties from their dread abode.” The numerous publications of Dr. H. are witnesses in themselves that he sedulously employed his talents and abilities for the improvement of his brethren, and the good of mankind.—Indeed, he was a preacher of such eminence, that we should suppose *few fools came to scoff*.

On a perusal of the sermons in these two volumes, it would be departing from the invariable rule of justice which we study to observe, if we were to pass any high general encomium on them. That they proved very acceptable and useful exhortations to the congregations, before whom they were delivered, we cannot entertain a doubt. They manifest nothing affected nor artificial, and they must have had great weight with the audience, from the spirit of sincerity and earnestness which pervades them. We do not, however, think that they are calculated to delight or to attract the attention of the reader, so well as they were suited to impress the hearts and excite religious emotions in the minds of a mixed and less fastidious congregation.—In offering these remarks, we would not be understood to be influenced in any way by a difference of opinion in point of doctrines, which certainly subsists between us and the author: but we speak of the general effect of the sermons, independently of the peculiar system of faith to which Dr. H. was attached.

The merits and characteristics of Dr. Hunter are so well known, and we have so often spoken of them, that we need not long detain our readers on the present occasion. If we were to select any single sermon as, in our estimation, superior to the rest, it

would be the 6th of the 1st volume, "On the Nativity of Christ." Eloquence and pathos are conspicuous in this composition; and the succeeding passage will display the author's ability in deducing just remarks and moral reflections from the incidents recorded in the Gospel history. His observations on the circumstances of our Saviour's birth are striking and appropriate:

'Let us learn not only to submit to, but to rejoice in the distinctions and varieties of condition, which a wise providence has established in the world. These are the appointment of God, else they would not exist. The absolute and universal equality of mankind is a chimera unwarranted by revelation, and flatly contradicted by fact and experience. When Jesus Christ came into the world, did he disturb civil society by an attempt to bring mankind to a level of nature, or even to distinctions founded on wisdom and virtue? Did his mother, under pretence of a miraculous conception and birth, claim the best house in Bethlehem as the property of heaven's favourite, or endeavour to dispossess a wealthier or more powerful guest of his lodging at the inn, to make way for David's son? Is Herod attacked with violence on the throne of Judea, or Cæsar on that of the world? Quite the reverse—the murderer of a thousand innocents is permitted to live, and to reign—the tribute of a lordly conqueror is cheerfully rendered him. Under what pretence then do the saints claim the dominion of the world? How could the disciples of Jesus ever think of turning the world upside down, to procure for themselves a place and a name? How severely did our Divine Master check every ebullition of such a spirit in his greatest favourites! This is not the state of retribution, but of discipline. The object of the gospel is to level, not men's fortune and rank, but their spirit and temper—to teach the rich in this world "to do good and to communicate, to be rich in faith and good works"—and the poor "to be rich in faith," meekness, and contentment—to instruct the mighty to be merciful, and the weak to be modest and diffident—to form the happy to moderation, and gratitude, and compassion—and the wretched to patience, and submission, and obedience—and, in a word, to bring all men, whatever be their external situation, to the common standard of humility, and to a sense of their dependence upon God, and accountableness to him, and to the habitual observance of the law of kindness, and forbearance and forgiveness, and love, one toward another. In this alone consists, if it exist at all, the equality of human nature—and this, as far as it is attained, makes earth resemble heaven, and men resemble angels—among whom there is dignity without pride, and subordination without murmuring or envy—with whom difference of degree is a source not of jealousy and strife, but of love and joy.'

Prefixed to these Sermons are some Introductory Addresses on Sacramental Occasions. In the Church of Scotland, of which Dr. H. was a member, the service of the Lord's Supper is conducted with extraordinary solemnity; and it is rarely administered more than twice in a year. A day in the middle of the

the week previously to its celebration is appointed as a Fast ; and the Saturday preceding the Communion Sabbath is observed as a day of preparation. The Monday following is also devoted to Divine Service. These Addresses of Dr. H. were delivered on giving Notice of the Sacrament—on the Fast Day—on the distribution of the Tokens \*—and on fencing † the Tables ; to which are added two Consecration Prayers.

ART. XIII. *An Essay upon Political Economy ; being an Inquiry into the Truth of the Two Positions of the French Economists ; that Labour employed in Manufactures is unproductive ; and that all Taxes ultimately fall upon, or settle in the Surplus Produce of the Land.* By Daniel Wakefield, Esq. 12mo. pp. 120. 2s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons.

**T**HE distinction of labour into *productive* and *unproductive* would be pronounced by most persons to be a mere abstract question, a matter of little or no practical importance, a fit subject for the schools : but, trivial as it may appear, consequences of the most serious nature have followed from it. If it be true that agricultural labour alone yields a surplus production, it follows that taxes can arise only out of this fund, and that an exclusive territorial tax is the most eligible mode of raising a revenue. This deduction was almost literally exemplified in France under the Assembly which has been grossly misnamed the Constituent. In conformity to the doctrine of the economists, that Assembly abolished most of the old taxes, and substituted for them a general land-tax ; and never did more

\* \* After service on the Saturday, the persons intending to communicate receive each from the ministers or the elders of the parish a stamped piece of metal, denominated a token, which they return before receiving the sacrament on Sunday. The intention of this is to prevent any person not known to the minister, and approved of as a person acting worthy of the christian name, from seating himself among the communicants, and partaking of the sacrament. On this occasion which is called the distribution of the tokens, an address, with suitable exhortations, is again delivered by the minister of the parish. The piece to which this note is subjoined is one of these addresses.

† After the ordinary service of the Sunday is over, and immediately before the distribution of the sacrament begins, the clergyman addresses the people, and informs them, that as this sacrament is intended only for the true christian, those who are conscious of dispositions inconsistent with that title, are debarred from it. He then enumerates the several sins, a subjection to which excludes from the worthily partaking of the Lord's Supper. This is called fencing the tables, or defending them from the approach of unworthy persons.

actual mischief proceed from a mistaken abstract notion. One branch of industry (the agricultural) was overburthened, and another (the commercial) exempted from public demands, on conclusions drawn from a false theory; thus a vast source of revenue was left untouched, and a system of taxation adopted which materially assisted the successive rulers of that country to destroy commerce, to subvert the state, and to construct a fabric of tyranny. The governing demagogues, seeing that commerce was unproductive of revenue, and regardless of individual sufferings, became indifferent to its fate; and perceiving that a territorial tax might be levied amid the shocks of public convulsions, they more readily adopted schemes of anarchy. The present ruler of the same country would not have had so easy a task in establishing his arbitrary sway, had the nation been subject to a system of taxation founded in freedom, and liable to be rendered inefficient by lawless rule. Taxes judiciously laid become a sort of guarantee to liberty, since they induce governments to respect that sacred principle from a fear of diminishing the revenue. It is curious to behold an assembly so jealous of freedom, and which carried their veneration for it to extremes fatal to itself, deliberately establishing a system of finance which favoured the subversion of the public prosperity; and which facilitated the erection of a more complete despotism, than any which Europe has witnessed in modern times. This property of direct taxation, as best allying with arbitrary power, follows from the nature of things; and it is rendered probable from its being the mode of raising revenue adopted by the latter Roman empire, and by China.

This doctrine of the French School, which regards labour employed in providing food as the only productive labour, indicates a very limited range of mind; it is formed on the idea that the mere sustentation of life is the sole end of our being; and that all which gives it relish, or confers dignity and importance on it, are to be held in no estimation; that all is *propter vitam*; and that we are wholly to overlook the *causas vivendi*.

Mr. Wakefield supposes the great error of this school to have originated in the abundant produce which land yields in France, at a small expence of labour, skill, and capital. There is, perhaps, more of refinement than solidity in this conjecture; for it must be recollected that the framers of this hypothesis, at the same time that they witnessed the ample returns made by a propitious soil, had under their view the wealthy manufacturers of Lyons, and the rich merchants of Bourdeaux and Marseilles. Is it not fully as probable that the notion arose out of the vast importance in which *eating* is held by this people,

people, as is manifest from the numerous metaphorical senses which the term *manger* bears in their language ; and also from their superior fondness for the article of bread, of which they consume so large a quantity ?

A summary of the doctrine maintained in this tract is included in the subsequent passage :

‘ It is obvious, that the cultivator of land produces something, only by means of a previous annihilation, *first*, of his own intermediate support, between seed-time and harvest ; *secondly*, of the wear of his stock advances\* ; and *thirdly*, of the seed sown : the manufacturer also produces something, only by means of a previous annihilation ; *first* of his own intermediate support between the beginning and completion of the manufacture ; *secondly* of the wear of his stock advances † ; and *thirdly*, of the raw material used. The rude produce of the cultivator is worth more than he has annihilated, it will exchange for more than his support, between the next seed-time and harvest, than the wear of his stock advances, and than as much seed as he will require to sow : this excess is therefore called his surplus value, or surplus production, which surplus is divided into *two* parts, the profits of his stock, and the rent of his land. The finished manufacture of the manufacturer is also worth more than he has annihilated, it will exchange for more than his support, during the time of completing a similar manufacture, than the wear of his stock advances, and than as much raw material as he will require to work up : this excess is therefore called his surplus value, or surplus production, which surplus is also divided into *two* parts, the profits of his stock, and the interest of his capital.’

A late French author considers agriculture as a particular species of manufacture, and land as a sort of machinery furnished to us by the bounty of nature. This view of the matter would have assisted Mr. Wakefield in elucidating the analogy between the two classes of labour ; in shewing that the incidents to both are the same ; and that a surplus produce belongs as much to the one as to the other. It must be admitted that Mr. W., in following his own method, has ably laboured this point ; he has brought the observations of Mr. Locke, in his disquisition on the origin of property, happily to bear on it ; and he well employs, in the same service, the strictures of the same great writer, on the resemblance between the rent of land and the interest of capital.

Aristotle's argument against taking interest for the loan of money, because money was barren, and incapable of producing

\* • By this term, as applied to the cultivator, I mean what is generally denominated live and dead stock, as cattle for work, implements, sheds, &c.’

† By this term, as applied to the manufacturer, I mean tools, machines, buildings, &c.’

money, has often been ridiculed: but, if duly considered, it will appear to be worthy of the superior penetration of that great genius; inasmuch as the only rational view of the subject, and that which accounts for the fluctuations of interest according to the respective situations and circumstances of states, arises from the consideration suggested by the objection of that great philosopher, namely the reproducing property of money when it is duly applied, and which is finely illustrated by Mr. Locke in passages inserted in this tract. It is very justly remarked by Mr. W. that

‘In a cultivated and advancing society, so high a price is given for the rude produce of land, and so low are the profits of all kinds of stock, that the nominal rent of land rises above the price for which the surplus of its produce will sell, and the land owner consequently receives more than his due proportion; but in a barbarous or declining society, the rude produce of the land being greater than the consumption of its inhabitants, its price falls; and as at the same time, the profits of stock rise, the nominal rent of land sinks below the price, for which the surplus of its rude produce will sell, and the land-owner receives less than his due proportion. The correctness of thus accounting for the rise and fall of the nominal rent of land, above or below its real rent, is demonstrated from land sometimes yielding no nominal, though in most cases it yields a real rent or surplus.

‘In a cultivated and advancing society, so high a price is given for raw material, and so great is the money reward of labour, that notwithstanding the lowness of the profits of stock, the nominal interest of capital falls below the price, for which the surplus of its manufactured produce will sell, and the capitalist receives less than his due proportion; but in a barbarous or declining society, raw material being at a low price, and the money reward of labour being also low, the nominal interest of capital rises above the price, for which the surplus of its manufactured produce will sell, notwithstanding the highness of the profits of stock, and the capitalist receives more than his due proportion.’

‘The above observations are founded on the relations of things, and are warranted by facts: but they admitted of being more perspicuously stated, and merited farther elucidation.

A distinction, on which some stress has been laid by great authorities on the present subject, is effectually obviated in the ensuing passage:

‘There is a distinction drawn by some writers\* between labour consumed in use, and labour employed in production, which does not appear to me sound. I am not going to argue which a wise man would chuse, personal service†, an article of clothing, or a healthful meal;

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\* Aristotle and Smith.

† This term includes the exertions of the lawyer to preserve our property from knavery, and our fame from calumny; the attendance  
of

meal; but what I mean is, that there is not any such real distinction, as the one drawn above, for what is labour employed in production, but employed in producing that which is to be consumed; the end of both labours after all being to be consumed in use; the artisan who makes a pair of shoes, and the cultivator who procures food, is employed in producing that which is to be consumed, while the labour consumed in use is employed in an attendance, the effect of which is over as soon as enjoyed; like to which, is the case of the shoes when worn out, and of the food when eaten \*.

In what follows, the admissions of the economists are dexterously employed to overthrow their system:

‘It is admitted by the French economists, that manufacturers have always been a self-supporting class: but they contend that labour thus exerted, returns no more than its cost: than the value of the raw material annihilated, than the wear of the stock advances, and than the support of the labour during the time it was engaged in the manufacture.

‘This admission, however, will involve them in great difficulties; for if, a century past, labour employed in manufactures produced equal to any number, or *one*, and consumed but *one*, surely now, that by the invention and use of machines, and by the increase of the division of labour, *two* or *three* times the then quantity of finished manufacture is produced, by the same expence of labour, manufacturers have become a productive class: with a consumption equalling *one*, they formerly, it is allowed by the economists, produced *one*; now however, with no greater consumption, they produce equal to *two* or *three*. Not only have the French economists omitted to consider the effects of the division of labour, and the introduction of machines, but they have failed, in not observing, that superiour skill will produce its effects, in less time than it will take an inferiour artist to perform, in a worse manner, a similar work; thus not allowing any value to the facilities of habit, nor to the exertions of genius, measuring by the same standard his physical wants, the rapid and finished execution of a Master, and the clumsy imitations of his apprentice; the sublime genius of a Reynolds, a Wren, or a Phidias, and the mechanical labours of a painter of signs, a common builder, or an image cutter.’

It is not to be overlooked that, in many manufactures, as well as in agriculture, nature supplies us with very operative agents, and that the elements frequently and essentially assist human labour:—for instance; light acts chemically; and heat, air, and water, act chemically and mechanically in forwarding a variety of manufacturing processes.

When disputing the conclusion that all taxes fall ultimately on the land, and that its surplus produce is the sole fund

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of the Physician to guard our lives, and to invigorate our health, and, the courage of the soldier to defend us from violence.’

\* M. Garnier in his *Traduction de la Richesse des Nations*, note 29 of the 5th volume, joins me in exploding this distinction.’

whence

whence they are drawn, Mr. W. finds in the case of his own country an instance which completely overturns that deduction. England pays into the exchequer a revenue which exceeds the surplus produce of its whole territory; while the proprietors, it is notorious, draw large incomes from the surplus fund of the land, which they consume or hoard at pleasure. The author is of opinion that direct taxes settle and terminate in income, and bear on the individual; while indirect imposts fall on consumption, and are borne by the consumers.

It appears to us that Mr. W. does not properly discriminate the several operations of the respective principles of original cost, and of competition in regulating price;—the one has a permanent and a controuling influence, the other a subordinate, temporary, and fluctuating effect. It does not follow that competition does affect price, because in the end the law of original cost will restore the equilibrium; if this were true, things would never sell above nor below their fair value; than which, however, in practice, nothing more frequently happens.

We were surprized to find repeated by this writer, the charge so often made against Dr. Smith, of not acknowledging his obligations to Sir James Steuart. We should be glad to see it ascertained what these are: but we own that we are not able to state any which are of a very serious magnitude. It is at the same time somewhat strange that Smith should never have referred to his predecessor, nor even have once mentioned his name. In Steuart's volumes, some good produce is to be found scattered over a vast surface: but it appears to be scanty in proportion to the extent. Little of theory occurs in the work; and what there is, besides being false, cannot lay claim to originality. He was also deficient in the art of composition, and unskilled in with the idiom of the language in which he wrote. The *Wealth of Nations*, as a literary performance, is liable to a great many objections, and chargeable with a few important errors: but still we hold it to be among the most valuable productions of the last century, and one which reflects on it the most lustre. We do not think that a late French writer, M. Say\*, goes too far when he asserts, "*Il n'y avait pas d'Economie avant Smith;*" and we are also of opinion with him that "*entre la doctrine des Economistes et la sienne, il y a la même distance qui separe la système de Tycho-Brabe de la physique de Newton.*" We know not what Mr. W. will say to the following sentiment of the same useful author, as it certainly bears hard on himself: "*Je n'ai jamais vu rabaisser*

\* See M. Rev. Vol. xlii. N. S. p. 514.

*Smith que par des personnes absolument hors d'état de le comprendre." Vid. Traité de l'Economie Politique, par J. B. Say. Tom. 1. Disc. Prel.*

In an Appendix, Mr. W. comments on certain positions advanced by M. Turgot, in a work intitled *Reflexions sur la Formation et la Distribution des Richesses*. Mr. W. mistakes, however, when he represents that very able and excellent person as an economist; since it appears from the whole of his works, and even from passages inserted in the pages before us, that he differed in many points from the members of that sect.

We concur with Mr. Wakefield in thinking that the discussion of subjects, such as those to which he has directed his attention, is highly commendable; and more particularly so in a country distinguished by its vast riches, where wealth is not only valuable on account of the comforts which it secures, and the importance and dominion which habit has assigned to it, but where it is become the essential support of a civil fabric, which those who live under it, feel and believe to be the first in the world. We conceive, however, that the author regards the positions which he has discussed as having more novelty than belongs to them. He cannot but know that the distinction which he so properly combats, which was first laid down by the economists, and which Dr. Smith did not sufficiently qualify,—together with its pernicious offspring, an exclusive territorial revenue,—have become obsolete even in France; and that no writers have more ably exposed these absurd and mischievous notions, than the later publicists of that country. It strikes us that Mr. W. has only the merit, and perhaps he lays claim to no more, of treading in the same path with preceding authors; and of assisting in elucidating very important points of political economy:—points which, if less original than he seems to consider them, admit of far more illustration than they have hitherto received. If his essay be not distinguished by felicity of method, and by perspicuity and neatness of style, it shews that the writer is well-informed on his subject, is a sound thinker, and an acute reasoner.

ART. XIV. *An Account of the Life of James Beattie, LL.D., Professor of Moral Philosophy and Logic; Aberdeen.* In which are occasionally given Characters of the principal literary Men, and a Sketch of the State of Literature in Scotland during the last Century. Some Poems, not generally known to be Dr. Beattie's, are also introduced in the Course of the Narrative. By Alexander Bower. Crown 8vo. pp. 230. 5s. Boards. Baldwins. 1804.

**T**HIS narrative will be perused with pleasure by those who are satisfied with plain facts recorded in plain language : but the writer has taken the unnecessary trouble of prolonging his relation by the introduction of much collateral and even extraneous matter. His principal notices of the author of the *Minstrel* and of the *Hermit* may be comprized in a narrow compass.

James Beattie was born on the 5th of November 1735, in the parish of Lawrencekirk, in Kirkcaldineshire. When only seven years of age, he lost his father, who was a farmer, and remarkable for his probity and his love of the muses. Through the generous assistance of his elder brother, David, James was initiated in the elements of the English and Latin languages, by Mr. Mylne, schoolmaster at Lawrencekirk ; a teacher of reputation, and successor to the celebrated Ruddiman. Poet Beattie (for so he was called even at this early period of his life) distinguished himself among his school-fellows by diligence and superior attainments, though he laboured under the disadvantage of a very weakly constitution. In 1749, he obtained a small scholarship in Marischal College, Aberdeen, by excelling in a comparative trial ; and he commenced his academical career by studying Greek, under Principal Blackwell, from whose hands he received a very honourable prize. The second term of his public study seems to have embraced Latin, Mathematics (in which he was no remarkable proficient), and History, Geography, and Chronology. Natural Philosophy formed the principal object of the third course. In this department, it must be obvious that a want of the requisite mathematical knowledge must be very unfriendly to the student's progress.—The fourth term was devoted to Moral Philosophy and the abstract sciences, under Dr. Alexander Gerard, well known by his *Essay on Taste*, and other performances.

In 1753, Mr. Beattie took his degree in Arts, and obtained the humble situation of schoolmaster at Fordoun, a village not far from Lawrencekirk. At this time, he enjoyed the friendship and patronage of Francis Garden, afterward Lord Gardenstone, and added to his poetical reputation by contributions

to the Scotch Magazine, and an epitaph on two brothers who were drowned when bathing. It likewise appears that he was a severe disciplinarian, that he officiated as clerk of the parish, that he was enrolled in Marischal College as a student of divinity, and that his manners were not yet subdued into gentleness or complacency. In 1758, he was appointed one of the ushers in the Grammar School in Aberdeen, a situation to which he had *aspired* some months before, though without success. Beattie's sphere of activity and acquaintance was now enlarged; and, with the exception of some harassing head-achs, his term of ushership, which exceeded two years, appears to have passed with considerable satisfaction to himself. During this period, his poems were published, for the first time, by subscription.

On the 8th of October 1760, Mr. Beattie, in consequence of having obtained a royal patent, was admitted Professor of Moral Philosophy and Logic, in Marischal College. We need scarcely add that, in the course of a few years, he attained to distinguished celebrity as a teacher of Ethics.

• His habits of study were regular and constant. Little time was spent in idleness, because he was ambitious to acquit himself with credit, and to benefit his students as far as was in his power. An academical life is so barren of incidents that it cannot be expected to furnish much in the narrative. The lives of most literary men consist of little more than a history of their works. His pleasant and agreeable manners, even at this time, have been much commended. To his old associates he was kind and affable. And at his house and table they were always welcome.\*

• In 1766, the Professor married Miss Mary Dun, daughter of Dr. James Dun, who, for nearly seventy years, was a teacher in the Grammar School of Aberdeen. About four years subsequent to his marriage, he received from King's College, Aberdeen, the degree of Doctor in Laws. In July of the following year, he paid a visit to London, and was favoured with very flattering marks of attention from some of the most distinguished literary characters of the age.

• In the year 1772, his mother died at the advanced age of fourscore years. Her affectionate son, Mr. David Beattie, had for thirty years shewn her every mark of attention and kindness, and it was in his house at Johnstone, in the neighbourhood of Laurencekirk, that she died.—Those persons who knew her best have represented her as possessed of great self-command—as a prudent, kind woman, and as exemplifying those simple and unaffected manners, which were then more frequently to be found in Scotland than they are at present.\*

The Doctor repeated his visit to London in 1773, obtained a pension, was presented at the levee, and had 'the distinguished

guished honour of conversing with the King for five minutes.'—Before he returned to the North, he had a private audience of their Majesties at Kew.

The death of his son, James Hay Beattie, in 1790, was a severe trial to the feelings of a parent. In his 18th year, this young man, who united indefatigable application to uncommon powers of genius, was appointed his father's assistant and successor, and promised to be an ornament to the University. —The Doctor's second son, Montagu, with whom he went to London in 1791, died in 1796.

'These, and other misfortunes, to use the language of the poet, "harrowed up the soul" of Dr. Beattie, and his health, never at any time good, was thereby very considerably impaired. He was no longer under the necessity of doing the duty of the class, because he had the influence to get Mr. George Glenney appointed his assistant and successor.

'Of late years he entirely sequestered himself from society, and even the kind attentions and civilities of his friends and admirers were not relished by him. He dropped all correspondence with his old English friends, and their numerous inquiries after the state of his health did not now excite those quick sensibilities of which he had formerly been so susceptible. Premature old age, with all its infirmities, had made rapid advances upon him, and for three years before his death, he kept the house, and was for a great part of that time confined to his bed. If I mistake not, the last time he ventured out to take a short walk, was in the month of June, 1800. He was then very corpulent, and discovered extreme debility. At this time he was only about sixty-five years of age.

'His person was about the middle size, of a broad, square make, which seemed to indicate a more robust constitution than he really had. I have formerly mentioned that he was, during the whole course of his life, subject to attacks of head-ach, which upon many occasions interrupted his studies. His features were exceedingly regular; his complexion was somewhat dark; his eyes had more expression than those of any other person I remember to have seen.

'In the earlier part of his life he shewed great convivial talents, and was much admired in company, for his wit and uncommon flow of humour. He indulged himself, however, in liberties of that kind very seldom for many years past. He was a most admirable punster. Many of his puns are often quoted in conversation in the north; which, as far as that kind of wit deserves praise, discover great facility of invention. Any time that I ever saw him in company he was remarkably silent, but I could discover that he was not only attentive to the conversation, but seemed to be studying the features of those persons with whom he was in company.'

Towards the close of life, Dr. Beattie endured much bodily pain; and, when at length, he had become insensible to his own sufferings, he expired on the 18th of August 1803.

In

In this very condensed view of the life of an eminent poet and philosopher, we have omitted the dates and character of his writings, which have been the subject of former notices and appreciation. We have likewise passed over the author's diffuse and rather tiresome statements concerning various personages, whose history was already known to the public, or else of not sufficient magnitude to be formally unfolded. If, instead of these unnecessary digressions, Mr. Bower had favoured us with a few of Dr. Beattie's letters and memorable sayings, he would have imparted much more consistency and interest to his little volume.—It is the duty of the biographer to draw a faithful and finished portrait: but this he never can accomplish, if he keeps out of view those private anecdotes and domestic incidents which paint character and speak to feeling. With the historian of an individual, as with the historian of a nation, a regard to truth should be paramount to every other consideration. We would not drag into the glare of day the failings of the unfortunate: but neither would we wholly conceal them from the eye of the impartial observer. The possession of genius, taste, and learning, and their direction to the best interests of mankind, ought, no doubt, to cover a multitude of sins: but we should also reflect that a well constituted mind, rich in its own resources, and susceptible of the most refined and elevated pleasures, is the least exposed to debasement from habits of low intemperance. Yet that such a mind sometimes yields to degrading propensities will not admit of dispute. A sense of false delicacy, or the partiality of friendship, may draw a veil over the melancholy fact: but the professed painter of human character is imperiously required to exhibit its diversities as he finds them, and not as he would wish them to be. More than one public teacher of youth has fallen a sacrifice to the immoderate use of ardent spirits; we can commiserate their fate: but we cannot patiently endure that they should be held up as paragons of conduct, or exalted into saints. Dr. Beattie's case, if we are rightly informed, admits of palliation and pity. The pressure of domestic affliction exhausted and paralyzed the finer sensibilities of his frame, unstrung the man, and left only a "wreck behind."—

As a more extensive, and, we trust, a more instructive Life of the learned Professor is preparing for the press, by an ingenious and worthy Baronet, we shall forbear any farther comment on the present sketch.

ART. XV. *The Miniature*, a periodical Paper, by Solomon Grildrig, of the College of Eton. Inscribed, by permission, to the Rev. Dr. Goodall. 8vo. pp. 376. 7s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Windsor, and sold in London by Murray. 1805.

THE modest editor of this performance disclaims all pretensions to the bold strokes of Raphael, and the glowing colouring of Titian. 'My attempts,' says he, 'will follow the style of a *Miniature*, and while the touches are less daring, while less force and richness of imagination may be conspicuous in the following sketches, they may perhaps derive some merit in an humbler scale, from correctness of design, and accuracy of representation. This style indeed will be the more appropriate, as it is in the lesser theatre of life that it will be employed, and as juvenile folly, or merit, will often be the subjects of my lucubrations.'

Thirty-four numbers constitute the volume, relating chiefly to subjects of literature, morality, and religion. When we consider that these essays are the joint production of four very young Etonians, (the sons of the Marquis Wellesley and of Dr. Rennell, Mr. Canning, and Mr. Galley Knight,) we feel powerfully inclined to mention them with all the lenity of criticism which is consistent with our duty to the public. The highest praise, then, which we can award to these youthful contributors is, that their writings give no countenance to the fashionable foibles and vices of the times, and that they present us with correct and amiable views of conduct and manners. It is seldom, however, that they recall the playful and elegant humour of Addison; or even that vivacity and gaiety of disposition which we naturally associate with the early period of our existence. The sentiments are generally more trite, the attempts at wit less happy, and the style is more grave and subdued, than we could wish them to be in a work which is professedly juvenile. The propriety of assuming such a harsh appellation as *Grildrig* is by no means apparent: nor do we find that occasional negligences of composition are counterbalanced by liveliness of fancy, philosophical acuteness, or alluring interest. Novels and romances are treated with severe and indiscriminate censure; while the reflections on the progress and declension of national manners, on modern theatrical exhibitions, on gaming, death, the Scriptures, &c. are too tame and hackneyed to be perused with much gratification.

The remarks on the influence of fashion on poetical compositions, if not original, are at least ingenious and amusing. A paragraph or two may serve as a sample of the rest:

'It is a trite but true observation, that the frivolous whims and fanciful dictates of fashion have more effect upon the mind, and enforce

force their commands with more irresistible sway, than all the precepts and admonitions of prudence or wisdom. It might however seem probable, that fashion would have contented herself with arranging the tasty fabric of a lady's head dress, or the cut of a beau's coat; with deciding the exact hour when it should be genteel for the gay world to feel hungry; with regulating the length of a shoe-string, or any other important article of a similar nature. But the goddess, wishing to exert her prerogatives and power to the utmost, has extended her influence over the regions of literature and taste; she has invaded the sacred retreats of Helicon themselves, and by a touch of her wand, the Muses appear as readily inclined to follow her commands, as any other young ladies within the realms of St. James's, while Apollo himself submits his lyre to be new strung at her option. In short, poetry is and has long been as entirely subject to the laws of fashion as a birth-day suit, or a ball-dress, and promises, under its present rules and restrictions, soon to become equally valuable. From the epic to the elegy, the pindarick ode to the sonnet, her power is felt, her supremacy acknowledged. It is not however of late years only that fashion has been thus omnipotent; were we to take a chronological inspection of poetry in general to the most remote ages, we should, I believe, perceive her equally domineering. The wild Norwegian ballads and romantic strains of the Erse and Norse legends are all marked with the same character.

• Simplicity was the universal aim of the ancient English minstrels, a taste which has been ill supplanted by the whims of a later date. At one period the merit of poetry consisted not in the novelty of ideas, or elegance of expression, but in the form or model which it displayed. I recollect having seen a copy of verses, "*To a hair of my Mistress's eye-lash*," whose only merit consisted in the lines being so arranged, or rather disarranged, that the whole poem might be written in the form of a heart. A pair of wings was the favorite shape for a sonnet to appear in; and a triangle the established form of a sacred hymn. At another moment the whim of men led them to exclude particular letters from their poems; and one soaring beyond the rest, actually wrote, or intended to write an Epic Poem in five books, on purpose to exclude every vowel by turns. The sublime ode was another resource of fashion to vary the prevailing follies of the day. High and low, rich and poor were then universally excited to give vent to their extravagant fancies, in the wildest measures and loosest numbers; sense or beauty was equally sacrificed to irregularity, and all believed that the use of Pindar's Metre would inspire them with Pindar's sublimity and conception.

• Every subject was deemed equally worthy of these high flights of poetry. Odes on the "*use and abuse of cabbage-stalks in the cure of a quincy*," or on "*the efficacy of lime in the composition of mortar*," were the common productions of the press. Ere long this taste fell into disrepute, and was succeeded by another if possible more surprising. The whole nation seems to have been suddenly inspired with a species of religious mania, and it appears to have been then considered actually necessary, for the composition of a meritorious poem, on whatsoever subject it might be written, that the performance should be seasoned

with a spice of the scriptures, or a few sacred similes, by way of keeping holy ideas continually present to the minds of the reader. Whether this resort proved serviceable to the cause of religion, it is not for me to determine; but poetry was certainly not improved by a mixture of texts dragged by main force into every sort of composition, which, when thus pressed into service, lay prominent from the body of the poem like so many lumps of extraneous matter. The comparison of a blight destroying suddenly an unfortunate field of barley, to the exterminating angel, who in one night slew all Senacherib's powers, does not excite any very pastoral or reverential ideas; and this method of writing was the more detrimental, as it introduced a most marvellous jumble of christian and mythological tenets. In one line the reader is induced to suppose himself in Paradise, while in the next, the sudden appearance of Venus and her-graces puts the pious supposition totally to the rout; nor does the Pagan Mercury, who was an acknowledged protector of thieves and vagabonds, when he is addressed at the beginning of a sonnet, perfectly associate with the reverence due to the Christian Jehovah, who is brought to be present at the conclusion.'

We were not equally amused with the strictures on *Reviewers*: but we still keep in mind the age of our censors; and we can readily believe that they are as little acquainted with the history of respectable literary journals as with the female character, which they sometimes affect to paint or satirize. Their knowledge of the diversities of human conduct is obviously derived from books, and not from actual observation. The world is a mixed, a busy, and an intricate scene, which they have not yet duly contemplated:—but, though they seem to be unequal to the delicate task of "catching the manners living as they rise," it is far from our intention to depreciate their laudable efforts. In the description of a club of self-talkers, and in the exemplifications of mistaken views of ambition, we can discern both point and humour. The short sketches by *Theophrasticus* are likewise spirited and entertaining. The absent and forgetful man is thus delineated:

'Without therefore having recourse to so extraordinary a personage as the celebrated Mons. Menalque, I shall exhibit some few instances of unaccountable forgetfulness and delay, as they present themselves in the conduct of a gentleman, with whom I have lately had the honor of conversing several times with so little effect, that when we last met, he had not the slightest recollection of my person or name.

'We must not hope to take a view of our present hero at a very early hour, as he has not for many years made his appearance before noon; and to this one regulation he so uniformly adheres, that his breaking it might be considered almost portentous. In Town indeed he finds many to countenance him in this habit; but it proved rather inconvenient at a gentleman's seat in Devonshire, where he passed the last summer, and where the old, and I may add salutary, custom of  
dining

dining in the day-time is retained. He usually came down to breakfast, while the cloth *was being laid* for dinner. And even at that late hour his dress bore so many marks of palpable negligence, that his clothes appeared rather to have been carelessly flung over him, than put on.—Indeed his uncombed hair, dirty hands, coat interspersed with feathers, and his stockings hanging about his heels, did not afford any very favourable idea of his diligence, or cleanliness \*. Fatigued with inactivity, he found it necessary to walk out, just as the first dish was placed on table. This walk he frequently protracted till he lost the meal, for which it was intended to create an appetite, as the family were very soon obliged to relinquish all ideas of accommodating themselves to his hours. For these irregularities he had, it must be owned, a general excuse. His watch was scarcely ever correct; and this will the more readily be credited, when we consider that it scarcely ever had the opportunity of being so more than once in twelve hours, its proprietor usually forgetting to make use of the key.

‘In a mixed company he renders himself disagreeable to every one from want of attention and consideration. When he feels an inclination to applaud the elegant refinement of courts, he selects a rough patriot for his auditor; and alarms a supple *Mc. Sycophant* by vehement declamation on the rights and liberties of the people. To a single lady of fifty he professes his utter abhorrence of old maids; and paints in glowing colours the miseries of matrimony before a newly married couple. He stupifies a man of fashion with a discussion on consols and annuities; and bewilders a stock-broker by leading him through all “the mighty maze” of balls, races, routs, and operas.

‘When he does not disgust people in this manner, he generally affronts them by an apparent contempt for their remarks, which is the effect of his abstraction upon what he was at first engaged in. He talks to himself, thinks on twenty different subjects at once; and is, in fact, precisely that man, to whom Lord Chesterfield prefers a *corpse*.

‘You may see in his apartment a little grove of canes, which he has at various times carried off by mistake from different families, which he sometimes distresses by his visitations. He seldom goes to a party without changing his hat, and as he has not recollected to purchase one during the last six years, suspicions have now and then been entertained that on these occasions he had his wits more about him than usual. But such opportunities daily decrease, as those who know him thoroughly no longer give him any invitations, aware that he would either miss the time appointed, or totally forget the engagement.’

*Theophrastus*, we are afterward informed, is the *nom de guerre* of Mr. Henry Jay, late of Eton College, and now of Christ Church, Oxford. Most of his readers, we doubt not, will regret that this gentleman should have limited his services to a solitary paper.

Of the few poetical passages which occur in this performance, we cannot speak in terms of superlative admiration.—The translation of the last thirty-four lines of the first Elegy

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\* These traits are surely too much caricatured. *Rev.*

of Tibullus is, perhaps, the best; it proceeds from the pen of Mr. George Irvine, who is not more particularly designated.

On the whole, if these new-fledged monitors will patiently submit to be told that they have not attained to the excellence of their precursors, we are very cordially disposed to give them all due credit for their lucubrations, and to applaud their manly devotion to the cause of literature, virtue, and piety.

ART. XVI. *A Description of the Island of St. Helena*; containing Observations on its singular Structure and Formation; and an Account of its Climate, Natural History, and Inhabitants. Crown 8vo. pp. 265. 6s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1805.

WHEN we consider that the island of St. Helena has been in the possession of Europeans during three hundred years, that it has been visited by men of science, and that it is a refreshing station for the shipping of the greatest trading company in the world, we may be allowed to express our surprize that it should have remained so long without its own historian. If the present tract should, in some respects, be found defective, the author may plead that his survey was limited to the short space of five weeks, and that he could derive little assistance from the incidental notices of prior writers. Although we are confident that his description admits of enlargement, it nevertheless presents us with more useful and distinct information than we can properly compress into a brief analysis. As the subject, however, possesses the recommendation of novelty, we shall at least advert to some of the most important particulars.

This island lies in the Atlantic ocean, at nearly a thousand miles south of the equinoctial line, and about as many from the coast of Africa. From its great elevation, and the purity of the surrounding atmosphere, it is seen at the distance of seventy or eighty miles. On a nearer approach, it assumes a ragged, black, and desolate appearance. Its indented coast measures twenty-eight miles in circumference. Its greatest length is ten miles, and its greatest breadth between six and seven. The hills nearest to the sea are from eight hundred to fourteen hundred feet in height. Those in the interior are still more elevated; and the loftiest peak of the central ridge rises to 2692 feet above the level of the sea. The higher regions abound in verdure and luxuriant vegetation; while the lower hills on the coast, and most of the valleys that lie between them, are not only naked and barren, but, from their mouldering composition, and the decay which has taken place, they have

have an aspect of rudeness and desolation, which it would be difficult to describe, and not easy to conceive, without having seen them.' The island was discovered by the Portuguese, on the 21st of May, 1508, or St. Helen's day, from which circumstance it derived its name. It was found without any human inhabitant, without quadrupeds, and almost without birds. It has remained in possession of the English since the year 1674.

'The sea tortoise, which now frequents the narrow strands and coves about the shore much seldomer than formerly, is perhaps the only creature whose ancient retreat has been disturbed by our possession. In appropriating and subduing the wastes of nature, only to extend and multiply her productions, in diffusing life, together with the means of supporting and rendering it comfortable, and in effecting these benevolent purposes without injury or injustice to others, man would exercise a noble prerogative, befitting the rank which he holds in the creation: But it is to be lamented, that Europeans have seldom traversed the ocean, for the purpose of practising this rare beneficence. The progress of their discoveries, if we except those made in the present reign, instead of diffusing the benefits of nature, and communicating the advantages of culture to remote lands and their inhabitants, has too frequently been marked by rapine and injustice. From the painful recital of the wrongs committed by them on the opposite shores of America and Africa, we may turn with a momentary satisfaction, to contemplate the appropriation and improvement of a desolate and barren spot; the rise of an establishment, effected without injury to any one; and a little colony speaking the language of England, in a remote island of the *Æthiopic Ocean*.'

The hills, of which the island is composed, are formed of beds of lava, which vary in their depth, colour, and texture. The predominant rock is a heavy, close-grained basalt, of a flinty hardness, generally of a dark blue or black, though sometimes red, or party-coloured. It is always regularly fissured, and runs in distinct layers, which manifest a visible tendency to regular forms. In a few places, the whole is truly prismatic. The columns are usually perpendicular, but sometimes oblique, and often beautifully curved. The summits and bases of the rocks are frequently marked by cells and caverns: but these last also sometimes occur in the centre of the mass, and accompanied by a curious circumstance. 'In a quarry, situated in the interior part of the island, where these blue rocks are dug out, for the purposes of building, and where they readily separate in a regular shape, the stone when broken is found to have many large internal cavities, which contain a pure and wholesome water. They are generally quite filled with this water, which is shut up in the body of a rock, of the closest and most compact texture.'

Several of the hills are obviously argillaceous, and composed of horizontal and parallel strata, penetrated by perpendicular veins of loose and broken rock. From their disjointed texture, the vertical strata, which occupy the steep declivities, become subject to what may be literally termed *dilapidation* :

‘ In these places, they are seldom observed to be elevated much above the face of the hill, as the fragments separate and tumble down, in proportion as the surrounding soft parts decay, or are washed away : Yet, on the very summit of the hill, a portion of the stratum frequently remains entire, and rises to an amazing height. There is a singular groupe of these detached masses on the south side of the island, to which the inhabitants have given the names of Lot, Lot’s Wife and Daughters. They rise to an astonishing height, above the top of the hills on which they stand ; and though they seem at first sight, detached and unconnected masses, they are found, on examination, to form a part of the vertical strata, and probably from their position have resisted the decay which has taken place in the declivities. They are composed of distinct fragments, such as have been described, and have a most striking appearance, surrounded by deep chasms and tremendous precipices, and with clusters of argillaceous hills, the most picturesque and romantic, whose summits are all regularly fashioned ; and discover every tint of colour, excepting that of vegetable green. Over all this part of the island, which borders on Sandy Bay, there is a wildness in the surrounding scenery, surpassing every thing which the writer of this has ever seen. One feels here, as if transported into a new planet, where every object strikes by its novelty, and is altogether unlike any thing which he has met with before. All the surrounding hills, cliffs, rocks, and precipices are so strangely fashioned, and so fantastically mixed and blended, that they resemble more the aerial shapes, which we see among the clouds, than any thing composed of denser materials.’

The whole surface of the island is overspread with loose fragments of the blue basaltic rock, intermixed with light, spongy, and porous stones, of various hues. No sand is found on the coast, except at one place ; and there it is black, being evidently composed of fragments of the basaltic rocks.

After having premised some judicious and temperate observations on geological theories, the author endeavours, and with considerable success, to prove, from the analogies of structure and appearances, that the island which he describes is one great mass of volcanized matter. He then passes to some ingenious remarks on the climate, which is represented as serene, and uncommonly salubrious. The mean heat scarcely amounts to 69 ; and the range of the thermometer, taken at different heights, and for the period of a year, may be from 52 to 84. In a wide extent of sea, not subject to disturbance from contiguous lands, the trade wind maintains its uniform and settled course

course, and the weather is mild, benign, and tranquil. In such a happy region, 'at a vast distance from every other land, St. Helena is descried in the solitude of the ocean. Being of an extent too inconsiderable to affect or modify the general course of the weather, which predominates in these latitudes, it enjoys the same settled serenity of climate, the same exemption from storms, and the same unvarying revolution of seasons, which prevail through all the interior parts of the *Æthiopic*. It has no other wind besides that of the Trade; it is never visited by hurricanes; and one may reside on it for several years, without observing the phenomena of thunder and lightning.'

The chief inconvenience to which the island is subject is want of rain; a circumstance which the author ascribes to the great uniformity of temperature, to the constancy of the Trade wind, to the absence of land and sea breezes and regular periodical winds, to the remoteness of other lands, to the inconsiderable size of the island itself, and to the nakedness of its surface. Without greatly transgressing our due limits, we cannot pursue the illustration in which the writer here indulges; we can only observe that his reasoning principally applies to the circumstances of tropical climates, and that consequently it is apposite to the case in question.

The list of plants indigenous to St. Helena is, as we may easily suppose, far from numerous. Among the nine or ten species of trees and shrubs reputed native, are, the Tree-fern, (which attains to the height of 20 or 25 feet, and bears a very close resemblance to the Fern,) the Cabbage-tree, the Ebony, &c. Of the smaller plants, the principal are Endive, Purslane, Wild Celery, Samphire, Water-Cresses, and different kinds of grasses. Some of the most thriving of the imported vegetable productions are the Oak, Chesnut, Ilex, Bamboo, Palm, Weeping Willow, Orange and Apple-trees, and Plantain. The Peach was once the most abundant fruit in the island: but an insect, introduced about thirty years ago, has destroyed most of the trees.

'It is a curious circumstance, that this insect, which, according to the testimony and belief of the inhabitants, was imported with the *Constantia* vine from the Cape of Good Hope, or with some shrubs from Mauritius, should not now settle on any of the plants, on which it is supposed to have been brought hither. Its ravages are almost exclusively confined to the Peach, the Mulberry, and one or two of the native island shrubs. An old inhabitant, describing and lamenting the ravages it had made, could not forbear crying out, the tears almost starting into his eyes, "We would with pleasure have given up to it half the trees of the place, had it only spared our peaches, which we valued so much." But this inexorable little foe will listen to no such

composition; and having hitherto resisted every offensive means employed against it, is likely to continue its progress, till it has completely deprived the inhabitants of this wholesome and delicious fruit.<sup>3</sup>

The heights of the island appear to have been the first places which were clothed with the native shrubs and plants; and these still grow on elevated situations, blended with exotics, which thrive equally well; 'so that it is difficult to say, whether the native island shrubs, or the furze, myrtle, Scotch fir, the mimosæ of New Holland, or the heath and broom of Africa, prosper best. On these spots, the beauty of which is probably heightened by the contrast of surrounding barrenness, we have an opportunity of observing what the unassisted efforts of the climate, and of a highly productive soil, are capable of effecting.'

Though attempts to cover the naked volcanic hills on the shore have not been sufficiently multiplied, there can be little doubt of their ultimate success. Some time ago, several of the inhabitants had formed themselves into a society for carrying on extensive plans of improvement; and they were powerfully assisted by Dr. James Anderson, a gentleman well known in India for his ardent and active benevolence, and for his scientific pursuits. The want of adequate funds, and other difficulties, unfortunately abated their efforts; yet the result of their first experiments was very encouraging to every well devised scheme of amelioration.—The author judiciously recommends to plant the valleys with those sorts of Palm trees which endure extraordinary droughts, and which would prove a certain resource in the event of an unpropitious season, or of the non-arrival of expected supplies. Along with the palms, he would introduce such trees as yield the most wholesome and nutritious fruits, particularly the Jack and Mahwah. He supposes that the want of shelter, firewood, and useful timber, might be supplied by the jungle shrubs of India, especially the Mimosæ, and by several forest trees, particularly the Teak, the Poon, and the Banyan. He next suggests the propriety of an artificial command of water, by means of tanks and reservoirs, in order to forward the first plantations, and to counteract the effects of long continued droughts.

'When we consider how much this island might be improved and decorated by the addition of wood, it is difficult not to anticipate the striking and beautiful effects that would arise from it. There is here every variety and wildness of surface, which can result from the most fantastic configuration of rocks and hills; and this rude and natural scenery wants only the shade and embellishment of wood, to make the whole one of the most delightful and romantic spots in the world; and which, instead of disgusting the eye with a prospect so dismal  
and

and dreary under a benign and genial sky, would discover, in the remote solitude of the ocean, an object the most grateful and refreshing to those that approached it.'

The inhabitants of St. Helena are supposed to amount to about two thousand, of whom five hundred are soldiers, and six hundred blacks. The females born in the island are said to exceed the males in number. Though most of the families live in a state of comparative retirement, and in a situation apparently favourable to peace and happiness, few individuals seem to be satisfied with their condition; and even the natives express a strong desire of 'going home.' Petty jealousies and intestine divisions, which are generally suspended during the shipping season, are sometimes revived when the island is free from bustle:

'The arrival of the homeward-bound Indiamen is the greatest event of the year. It fills the whole settlement with alacrity and joy. They quit their gardens, flock to James town, open their houses for the accommodation of the passengers, and entertain them with plays, dances, and concerts. These gay assemblies are enlivened by the presence of many agreeable and handsome young women, natives of the place, who, amid the general festivity, seem to feel a peculiar interest in what is going forward; probably, not without some throbbing expectations of being taken from a scene, where they are weary with constantly contemplating the same objects. The appearance of so much loveliness and beauty, cast away in a lonesome situation like this, has sometimes raised stronger emotions than those of mere sympathy, in the bosoms of their guests; and the native women of St. Helena have adorned domestic life, and graced the politest circles in England and India. To such fortunate and pleasing occurrences, it may somewhat contribute, that many of the strangers, having escaped with impaired constitutions from the oppression and sultriness of an Indian atmosphere, experience a sudden renovation of health and spirits, under this mild and salubrious climate. Into minds thus exhilarated, from the effect of returning health, love easily finds an entrance.

'But whether the expectations of the ladies are often favoured in this way, or not, the pleasure and benefit derived by convalescents from the climate tend greatly to enhance the enjoyment of their short stay here: and as the people with whom they live, are of a courteous and obliging disposition, and readily take the trouble of shewing whatever is worth seeing in the island, it may easily be supposed, that strangers will pass their time very agreeably. We love so much better to be pleased than to be instructed, that the qualities which inspire good humour and complacency, easily compensate the want of information and intelligence. The conversation of the natives is that of a plain unaffected people, chiefly conversant about their own concerns. A life of seclusion, passed upon a spot where one only sees the sky and the ocean, is not likely to make men philosophers or citizens of the world. Where the mind is limited in its views to the scenery and occupations of a petty isle, some of its conceptions will naturally betray

the confined circumstances in which they arise. An observation made by a St. Helena lady, "that the arrival of the Indiamen in England must, she supposed, make London very gay," however it may excite a smile in this country, was perfectly natural, in the situation in which it was made.'

The small farms and gardens yield some excellent fruits, pot-herbs, and farinaceous roots: but the island is in a great measure destitute of bread-corn, and is little adapted to the culture of grain. Besides, rats, caterpillars, and the peach insect have multiplied amazingly, to the great annoyance of the gardener and the agriculturist.

'It is curious,' observes the author, 'that some creatures, when brought into a climate that is new to them, should thus spread and increase to a degree beyond what they did in the countries from which they were imported. A very remarkable instance of this lately occurred in India, on the coast of Coromandel, where in the year 1796, a species of the cochineal insect, called the *Sylvester*, was introduced from the *Brasilis*. It was considered as a great acquisition, and much care was taken of it at first. It would feed on nothing but the common native *Opuntia*, which is generally used for hedges all over the country. In a short time, the insect destroyed all the *Opuntias* in the Carnatic; and so complete was the havoc which this voracious creature made, that the remaining stumps of the hedges on which it had settled, looked as if they had been consumed by fire. Nor was this all; for when our army was in Mysore, in the year 1799, the natives mentioned what appeared to them very astonishing and unaccountable, that all their *Opuntias* had, about the same period been entirely consumed. In this manner, a small insect, introduced from the *Brasilis* for the laudable purpose of establishing a cochineal manufacture, wasted and destroyed, in the short period of three years, almost all the *Opuntias* of the southern peninsula of India.'

Seventy different species of eatable fish, including turtle, are caught on the coast. Yams, potatoes, apples, beef, kid, mutton, and poultry, are good and abundant.

The labour of the fields, fishing, and the menial duties of domestic economy, are assigned to a mixed race of blacks, whose slavery has very lately been entirely abolished. 'The release of 600 blacks from a state of thralldom can subtract but little from the guilt of Europe, or the wrongs of Africa: yet it is consolatory to record even a single act of justice and mercy to an inconsiderable portion of this unhappy race, whom the enormous wickedness of Europeans has dragged from their homes, and condemned to slavery, not for any wrong they ever did us, or for any good we ever mean to do them; but because our power has unhappily enabled us to make their weakness and sufferings subservient to our avarice.'

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The political consequence of St. Helena to Great Britain, and its advantages and disadvantages as a shipping station, when compared with the Cape of Good Hope, are succinctly and fairly stated towards the conclusion of the work.—The whole is embellished by two views, the first representing the town and harbour, and the other shewing the island as it appears at the distance of six leagues. The writer's style is distinct and nervous, and sometimes approaches to elegance: but, in general, it wants compression and polish. His reflections are considerate, and his sentiments dignified and humane. We therefore recommend his publication, without reserve, to all those persons who may wish for accurate and authentic information relative to the little settlement of which it treats.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1805.

MILITARY and NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 17. *Reports of the Commissioners of Naval Inquiry, for the Year 1804.* With Notes, and a copious Appendix, containing Selections from the most important Documents on which the Reports are founded. By John Irving Maxwell, of the Honourable Society of the Middle Temple. 8vo. pp. 700. 15s. Boards. Symonds. 1805.

THIS volume contains the whole of the Eleven Reports of the Naval Commissioners, respecting, 1. the Naval Storekeepers at Jamaica; 2. the Chest of Chatham; 3. the Block Contract, and the Coopers' Contract; 4. Prize Agency; 5. the Six-penny office; 6. Plymouth and Woolwich Yards; 7. the Naval Hospital at East Stonehouse, and Le Caton Hospital Ship; 8. the Victualling Department at Plymouth, and the Embezzlement of the King's Casks; 9. the Receipt and Issue of Stores at Plymouth Yard; 10. the Office of Treasurer of the Navy; 11. the Issue of Navy Bills for the Purpose of raising Money.—The editor has not attempted to insert the whole of the *evidence* collected by the Commissioners, because it occupies, with the Reports, between two and three thousand folio pages! but he has endeavoured to select the most important documents, with perfect impartiality. He has not added the Reports of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the 10th and 11th Reports, because they did not come within his express object, would have increased the bulk of his volume, and the insertion of them might have savoured of party motives, they being the bases of the articles of impeachment against a noble Lord.

Art. 18. *The Vindication of N. Jekyll, Esq.* late Captain of the 43d Regiment; with a Copy of the Proceedings of the General Court Martial held on Col. Stewart of the same Regiment; together with the several Memorials and Letters addressed to H. R. H. the

the Commander in Chief, the Right Hon. the Secretary at War, and the Judge Advocate-General, with their Answers, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 260. 3s. 6d. Lloyd. 1805.

Capt. Jekyll having conceived himself aggrieved by the behaviour of Col. Stewart, commanding officer of the regiment to which he belonged, forwarded charges against him, in consequence of which a court martial was appointed. By the decision of this court, of which Major-General Moore was president, the Colonel was "most fully and most honourably acquitted;" the charges were denominated "malicious and groundless;" and the conduct of Capt. Jekyll was censured as "highly injurious to the good of the service." In conformity with this judgment, it was shortly afterward notified, that His Majesty had no farther occasion for the services of Capt. Jekyll; who thus lost not only his situation in the army, but the sum of money which he had given for his company. He therefore made reiterated applications to the Commander in Chief, endeavouring to obtain a revision of the sentence, by urging circumstances of extenuation; or, at least, praying to be permitted to dispose of his commission. All these efforts have proved fruitless, and he now appeals to the public.—As to us, our court is not a court martial; and we shall not offer any opinion on the subject.

Art. 19. *Trial of Lieutenant-General Harrie Innes, of the Royal Marines, at a General Court Martial, held at the Royal Hospital at Chelsea, June 5 and 8, 1802, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Dedman.

Gen. Innes was accused of making false returns and certificates relative to a serjeant who had deserted, and of discharging another serjeant, without authority from the admiralty. Of the first charge, the General was fully and honourably acquitted; and, with regard to the second, the court was of opinion, that the circumstances of the case justified the infringement of the rules and articles for the government of the marine forces, and therefore honourably acquitted him of that charge also.

#### BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 20. *Sketches of the Lives and Characters of eminent English Civilians*, with an Historical Introduction relative to the College of Advocates, and an Enumeration of the whole Series of Academic Graduates admitted into that Society, from the Beginning of the Reign of Henry VIII. to the Close of the Year 1803. By one of the Members of the College. 8vo. pp. 140. 4s. sewed. Kearsley. 1804.

We have here a convenient manual for persons, to whom interest or curiosity imparts a desire of becoming acquainted with the leading particulars of the lives of those who have been, or who at present are, members of this very respectable and learned society.

For a long course of years, the English civilians did not form a body, but were mingled with the mass of the citizens; and it was not till about the commencement of the reign of Henry VIII. on the proposal of Dr. Richard Bodewell, Dean of the Arches, that they agreed to dwell in contiguous houses, and to enjoy a community of board. In 1568, Dr. Henry Hervie, Dean of the Arches, procured  
from

from the Dean and Chapter of St. Paul's, a lease of Mountjoy-House, for the use and accommodation of the advocates. These premises were afterward purchased by the learned body; the Prerogative Court of Canterbury, that of the Bishop of London, and the Court of Admiralty, were held in them; and they obtained the name of *Doctors Commons*. In 1768, this society received a charter of incorporation, under the style and title of "The College of Doctors of Law, exercent in the Ecclesiastical and Admiralty Jurisdictions." None are admissible into this body, except persons who have taken the degrees of doctors of law at Oxford or Cambridge; and they become members by a fiat from the Archbishop of Canterbury, which, it is understood, will never be granted to persons in holy orders.

Cosin, the coadjutor of Whitgift in exalting the ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and in cashiering nonconformists,—Jenkins, (Sir Leoline) associated with Sir William Temple at Nimeguen,—and Davenant, the steady tory, and able political arithmetician,—are the names best known among the generations that are past; while those of Wynne, Scott, Nicholl, and Lawrence, stand first among the list of the living. The mediocrity, which Gibbon represents as characterising the professors of jurisprudence in antient Rome, seems to adhere to their followers, the English civilians; their corps seems never to have been illustrated by any individual of transcendent talents. We by no means presume to determine how far a splendid instance of living merit may form an exception to this observation. Members of a limited and controlled jurisdiction, they are viewed with jealousy; their profession is considered as giving them a bias in favour of high ecclesiastical and political notions; and it is a fact that they are never seen on the side of the rights and liberties of the subject, but are found the invariable advocates and supporters of the prerogative. Can these be the reasons why their course does not lead so generally in modern, as in former times, to state honours; and why it is, in this respect, far less favoured than that of the common law?

#### POLITICS.

Art. 21. *Invasion: or the Duty of every Briton to be prepared: with the most effectual Means of resisting the Threat of our inveterate Enemy.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Egerton.

The chief points of observation in this pamphlet are the use of the Pike, the necessity of some instruction and practice with it before the hour of danger, and the propriety of initiating the mass of the people in the *rudiments* of the military art. The author recommends 'that an invitation be held forth by Government to ALL\* who are not at present engaged in military duties (or debarred by personal

\* 'I say ALL, because the more general the assembly, the less would any party think of his share of the toil or inconvenience; and there are thousands, who, if not invited to join, would be probably employed in breaking ill-timed jests on those whose public spirit surpassed their own, or in damping the ardour of the braver and more honorable part of the community.'

infirmary)

infirmity) to associate *parochially*, for the purpose of learning to *face*, *march*, and *wheel*; next to form column, and deploy into line, with such other of the most simple manœuvres as may be deemed indispensable, (and none others ought to be required of such troops,) and as may tend to relieve from a perpetual sameness.

'This invitation ought to be accompanied with a candid and explicit declaration on the part of Government, that they will be no more liable to be called out for service, than if totally ignorant; that the original plan of selection of 1st 2d and 3d classes, &c. will be attended to; and that it is to enable them, when thus instructed, to render the service which may be required, with more ease and safety to themselves, than they could without such preparation.'

This idea seems to us to merit consideration; and the whole 'pamphlet displays good sense.

Art. 22. *The Speech of Mr. Deputy Birch*, in the Court of Common Council, at the Guildhall of the City of London, on Tuesday April 30, 1805, against the Roman Catholic Petition, then before both Houses of Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Assuming as a principle that 'Intellectual slavery and civil liberty never yet could be united in any government under Heaven,' Mr. Birch strenuously resists the Claims of the Catholics, and asserts the absolute impossibility of safely admitting them to a full participation of the privileges of the Constitution. His chief argument rests on the acknowledgement of the Spiritual jurisdiction of the Pope, which is wholly incompatible with one of the fundamental doctrines of British liberty, which we ratify with an oath, "that no foreign prince, person, *prelate*, state or potentate, hath or ought to have any jurisdiction, power, superiority, pre-eminence, or authority, *ecclesiastical* or civil within these realms." This objection to the Catholic Petition is of some weight; and, as we have formerly hinted, it becomes the Catholics to endeavour to obviate it. While they acknowledge and submit to a foreign jurisdiction, their church is as much a political as it is a religious institution; and Mr Birch reminds them of the impossibility of serving two masters;—of the impossibility of answering for their allegiance to the King of these realms, when their consciences are resigned to the direction of their priests, and the latter again are bound by oath to obey the mandate of a *foreign priest*, who claims the dangerous power of dispensing with oaths, and of dissolving people from their allegiance. It is the opinion of Mr. B., and which he indeed supports with strong reasoning, that we ought not to part with those barriers which are now placed round our Constitution, but insist on the Oaths of Allegiance and Supremacy being integral parts of the Bill of Rights. As toleration enters more into the essence of Protestantism than it does into that of Popery, he thinks that the Catholics will be safer in our hands than we shall be in theirs. We leave it to the Catholics to make their reply.

#### POETRY.

Art. 23. *The Young Rosciad*, an admonitory Poem, well seasoned with Attic Salt, *cum notis variorum*. By Peter Pangloss, Esq., LL.D. and A.S. 4to. 2s. Gordon.

The

The attic salt here mentioned is rather of the *pungent* kind: but perhaps both the public and the friends of Master Betty will not be the worse for it, provided they have resolution properly to administer it. If this youth has been rendered excessively vain and conceited, it must be attributed to John Bull's absurd and unqualified adulation; which has gone to the extreme of assigning to the puerile state, feelings and reflections that belong only to mature and experienced manhood. Master Betty is, no doubt, an extraordinary boy, but not a miracle; though, in the paroxysms of public praise, no terms of immoderation could be endured. Whatever may be Peter Pangloss's motive for writing the *Young Rosciad*, his hints are good; and we recommend his admonitions to all those to whom they are addressed, forgiving some coarseness, and regarding the spirit of the advice. In rhymes which appear to have cost Dr. Pangloss very little trouble in the structure, he thus delivers his opinion of the Young Roscius:

' The boy has certainly some points,  
Expressive face and pliant joints,  
But shou'd some years be kept at school,  
Nor make the public such a tool.  
All sober critics, sure, must deem  
It folly in a great extreme,  
To vie with men, and to possess  
More impudence than they profess;  
No folly his—and hence it follows,  
*John Bull's* the fool who tamely swallows.

' Can a boy feel those ardent fires,  
*Maturity* alone inspires?  
Can he *discriminate*—conveying  
New meaning to his parts in playing?  
O yes! undoubtedly! his sense  
Soars far above such vague pretence—  
And what's the toil of many years,  
In him all *natural* appears.  
To him, by *Intuition's* given,  
A sole exclusive gift from Heaven!  
Immaculate and Heaven-born boy!  
Thy father's prop—the public's toy!  
The public are the generous factors  
Of *Heaven born-Ministers* and actors,  
Till time developes ev'ry scheme,  
And JOHN BULL wakens from his dream,  
Lo!—how he looks—he rubs his eyes,  
And wildly staring with surprise,  
Searches his pockets—to his cost,  
Finds all his ready rhino's lost!

This writer feels for the standard actors of the Royal Theatres, who have been pushed completely into the back ground by this Youth, and their interest sacrificed, in order rapidly to make his fortune:

' By Heaven ! 'tis strange this fascination,  
 Or rather this *infatuation* !  
 That he, Colossus like, should stride,  
 Sweep all before him, like the tide.  
 But tides are wont to ebb and flow,  
 And once deceiv'd, we wiser grow.  
 Far be the wish to check his spirit,  
 And not allow him every merit ;  
 That as a *Boy* he stands apart,  
 And gains applause from ev'ry heart ;  
 As *such*, encouragement is due,  
*Proportionate* to him from you :  
 But when, without discrimination,  
*Profusion's* scatter'd by the nation,  
 When rich and poor, and young and old,  
 All rush to fill his bags with gold,  
 Unmindful of their former friends,  
*This—Justice—Common Sense* offends.'

Dr. Pangloss also takes the part of Mr. Hough, Master Betty's theatrical preceptor ; and if an anecdote, given in a note, and which is said to be related on the testimony of a person who was an ear-witness, may be credited, Young Roscius is chargeable with great ingratitude, as well as self-conceit. We hope, however, that it is not correct ; and if it *be false*, it behoves the friends of this youth to have it publicly contradicted.

The poet moreover reminds the Young Roscius, that a young *Roscius* is about to start, who promises to eclipse his fame, and of whom the town will be more enamoured than even of him :

' This self-opinion may arise  
 From partial friends, misjudging eyes ;  
 But trust me, 'twill impede your course,  
 And of much mischief be the source—  
 Some little *Miss*, perhaps, may rise,  
 And equally the Age surprise !  
 \* Who knows, perhaps—some little Letty  
 May share the spoil with Master Betty !  
 Nay—I can vouch, I know of *one*,  
 Whose sure success I build upon ;  
 Whose *Lady Randolph*, *Juliet*, too,  
 May make you look a little *blue*.  
 The public's mind is apt to range,  
 Stocks vary constantly on 'Change ;  
 And all the world will yield it o'er,  
 A *Female* claims protection more.'

Pangloss's prophecy, however, has just been falsified by the public *dismissal* of Miss Mudie, at Covent Garden. *Common sense* seems to be *rallying its forces*.

It is hinted, in the conclusion, that Master Betty's education should be more considered at present than money ; and that he should go to College, in order that he might become in time an accomplished man.

Art. 24. *The Sports of the Genii.* By Mrs. John Hunter. 4to.  
pp. 16. with Plates. 10s. 6d. sewed. Payne. 1804.

## EPILOGUE.

' Critics sharp, with brow severe,  
Our small volume come not near:  
Authors grave, and learn'd, and wise,  
Never this way turn your eyes.  
' Let us wander, wild and free,  
In sport and whimsicality,  
' Thro' gay Fancy's flow'ry maze;  
Nor blame us, though you scorn to praise.'

Under such an interdict, we should forfeit all pretensions to courtesy, if we presumed to tax Mrs. Hunter's playful muse with frivolity, or alleged that she wandered through tamer regions than 'gay Fancy's flow'ry maze.' In this dilemma, we can only state the purport of her effusions, and quote one of the best of them.

The late Miss Macdonald, daughter of Lord Chief Baron Macdonald, possessed a singular facility in sketching groupes of little winged boys. These groupes suggested the little poems which accompany them, and which were originally written for the amusement of the young. Thirteen of these *innocent* Anacreontics are here annexed to as many etchings, which evince considerable ease and grace of outline. Mrs. Hunter has the merit of forming them into subjects for her classical fictions. We transcribe 'the Captive' as a favourable specimen :

" Forbear! forbear!" " Compassion cry'd,  
Nor treat with cold insulting pride  
The captive in thy pow'r.  
Behold her form, in beauty gay;  
Nor, in thy cruel, thoughtless play,  
Abridge her little hour.

" Poor trembling insect! *early* caught!  
How distant in thy simple thought,  
The danger when most near!  
Perhaps on Clytie's golden breast  
Thou *sought* for safety—*hop'd* for rest;  
And sorrow found thee there!

" The Muse shall mourn thy helpless fate;  
For Love can torture more than Hate,  
And will—because he may.  
O may some star propitious beam,  
And save thee from the dire extreme,  
Speeding thy flight away!"

The levity of this performance is amply compensated by the heaviness of its price.

Art. 25. *Metrical Tales, and other Poems,* by Robert Southey, Crown 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Having expressed our opinion of these pieces, as they appeared in

the *Annual Aibology*, we shall waste no more paper concerning them. Mr. Southey informs the public, in his Advertisement, that the poems are now printed 'in this collected form, because they have pleased those readers whom the Author was most desirous of pleasing.' We are proud to acknowledge, that we are not infolled in this band of amiable admirers.

## RELIGIOUS.

Art. 26. *Letters of St. Paul the Apostle, written before and after his Conversion.* Translated from the German of the late Rev. John Caspar Lavater, Minister of the Gospel at Zurich. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Johnson. 1805.

He must indeed be a bold man, who undertakes to write letters in imitation of St. Paul; and it was a strange freak in Lavater to engage in such an attempt. In the eccentricity of his genius, he thought or dreamt that he could personate the Apostle, and furnish an interesting supplement to the correspondence which has been transmitted to us in the N. T.: but we cannot proclaim his success; nor ascribe any great merit to these fictions of the imagination. We are informed, indeed, that not long before his conversion, Paul "breathed out threatenings and slaughter against the disciples of the Lord:" but what pleasure or benefit can be derived from a series of letters supposed to have been dictated by him in this state of mind? We can easily imagine that Saul the infidel and the persecutor, with his warmth of temper, uttered many vehement expressions against Jesus and his followers: but, had these all been preserved, the perusal of them could have given no satisfaction to the christian, who knows enough of Saul's enmity to the cross previously to his conversion, from the circumstance which is recorded of him, that he consented to the death of the proto-martyr Stephen; and from the picture which he gives of his own persecuting zeal, when he says of himself "I verily thought with myself that I ought to do many things contrary to the name of Jesus of Nazareth." To invent letters which pretend to tell us, at length, in what manner he expressed himself on this occasion, is, in our opinion, a very injudicious exercise of the fancy.

As to the epistles supposed to have been written by the Apostle *after* his conversion, if they be not so objectionable as the former, they appear to us, to be equally trivial and unsatisfactory. Sacred history is not elucidated by the addition of fictitious circumstances; nor are the genuine writings of St. Paul in the least illustrated by this spurious supplement. We require no additions to be made to the Epistles of the N. T. in order more strongly to impress our minds with a conviction of the sincerity of that Apostle's love to Christ.

These letters are said to have been found among the celebrated Lavater's papers: but the editor, on whose testimony we are to depend, has not subjoined his name to the translation. Who was indeed the author, and what his motive, whether it was to aid the Christian cause, or slyly to reflect on it, is of little importance to inquire; for the composition is not after the manner of the Apostle, nor in the style of his age; while the zeal, both of the Jew and of the Christian,

Christian, is so completely out of character, that every judge of moral physiognomies will shake his head at both.

Art. 27. *A Discourse on the Inspiration of the Scriptures.* By the Rev. Richard King, M.A., Rector of Worthin, Salop. 8vc.

1s. Hatchard.

"Truth," says Milton, "is the daughter, not of Time, but of Heaven"; so that, in the subject of this discourse, as well as other matters of importance, too much stress should not be placed on the testimony of antiquity, particularly the testimony of the Fathers, whose opinions were often vague and indigested. Our reference must be to the Scriptures themselves, whose evidence must decide the question. Whether the *xxi* in 2 Tim. iii. 16. be or be not retained, it is of less moment to inquire than what is the precise meaning of the word *θεωπνευστος*. Mr. King, though he contends for Inspiration in its highest sense, seems to lower the idea of this word, when he says that "in reading the best human compositions we are tempted to exclaim, '*Nil magnum sine afflatu divino*,'" in reading the inspired writings, we are compelled to declare, 'surely this is the voice of God:' for by this remark he makes no difference in kind, but only in degree. He was not, however, aware of this objection.—The substance of his reasoning is that St Paul, in the N. T. always uses the word *πνεῦμα*, scripture, as signifying the voice of God;—that the Fathers speak of the writers of the N. T. as inspired by the Spirit of God;—that the sublimity of the scriptures bears the marks which distinguish the works of God from those of man;—that they relate things which must be immediately derived from God;—that, though various copies and readings exist, every text contains the same laws, miracles, prophecies, and chain of history; that what has been so miraculously preserved must have been as miraculously inspired, (does the singular preservation of antient writings prove their inspiration?)—that the commission given to the Apostles to teach included instruction by writing as well as *vivā voce*;—and that the Comforter guided them into all truth.

Mr. K. adopts the Jewish opinion of the four different modes of inspiration. As to trivial matters, incidentally introduced by the Apostles, he does not include these in the inspired Word, since they make no part of the constitution of our faith.

Art. 28. *A Funeral Oration to the Memory of His Royal Highness the late Duke of Gloucester and Edinburgh*, delivered at Grosvenor Chapel, Grosvenor-Square, 8th Sept. 1805. By the Rev. T. Baseley, A.M. 4to. 1s. 6d. Faulder, &c.

Divines, Philosophers, and Poets have a string of remarks equally trite, yet equally awful, on the subject of Death. With some of these, Mr. Baseley prefaced this funeral oration, and then proceeds to eulogize the late Duke of Gloucester; notwithstanding, as he tells us, that express orders were issued, not only to abstain from every appearance of flattery, but even from the service prepared for the occasion. After the wish of the family had been thus unequivocally expressed, if the preacher had thought it a proper mark of respect for the illustrious deceased to have persevered in his purpose, delicacy should have taught him to abstain from extravagant and inflated pa-

negyric. He has not, however, been sufficiently cautious on this head; for though the late Duke of Gloucester was certainly a kind-hearted, amiable, and pious prince, and must be sincerely lamented by all who had the honour of knowing him, we do not consider him to have been so *saint-like* as that he was, according to Mr. B. 'an object of peculiar veneration to the whole Christian world;' and that by his death 'the magnificence of our Zion is marred, and her strength impaired.' Such hyperbolic praise ought not to come from a pulpit, does no honour to the dead, and is always unpleasant to the living. We do not expect Princes to be immaculate, any more than other men; and we never believe those who make that report of them.

#### MEDICAL.

Art. 29. *Experiments proving Vaccination or Cow-pox Inoculation to be a permanent Security against Small-pox: with Facts and Remarks.* By Samuel Hill, Surgeon, Town of Portsea, and Surgeon in the Royal Navy. 8vo. pp. 46. 1s. 6d. Highley. 1804.

This pamphlet contains the detail of ten cases of variolous inoculation after cow-pox. In none of them was more than a local pustule produced.

We see no good reason for the adoption of the word vaccination here used by the author; and we cannot help regarding this and other similar terms as indicating in those who use them a misplaced disposition to refine.

Art. 30. *Some recent Cases of Small-pox subsequent to Vaccination.* To which are added, Experiments to ascertain the Effect of vaccination in the Hand, in Imitation of the casual Disease; with Facts and Observations on the Effect of eruptive Diseases in removing the Security derived from Cow-pox. By Wm. Goldson, Surgeon, Portsea. 8vo. pp. 134. 3s. Highley, &c. 1805.

We noticed at some length a former publication of this author on the same subject, (Rev. Vol. xlv. N. S. p. 252.) but we are sorry that we cannot perceive, in the present pamphlet, the same candour which we remarked in the preceding. Mr. Goldson seems to be rather elevated with the attention which was given by the public to his first cases, and is now, to all appearance, a very sturdy and determined opponent of vaccination. In consequence of the wish expressed in his tract that variolous inoculation, on an extensive scale, should be practised on such as had gone through cow-pox at a distant period, the medical officers of the Vaccine Institution, much to their credit, entered on an enlarged course of experiments, in order to ascertain the preventive powers of cow-pox. They inoculated with variolous matter all such patients as had passed through the cow-pox at their institution to whom they could obtain access; and they were unable, in any one of the many cases which they thus subjected to the variolous test, to produce small-pox. This was complying with the wishes of Mr. Goldson, if we rightly recollect their extent: but he now considers these experiments as of no use in determining the great question; and he says that, in order to form a conclusion on the subject, some persons should have been inoculated, and others exposed strongly to infection.

tion. If, however, he will recollect the various examples on record, in which patients who never had cow-pox have been exposed to various contagion without any effect, he ought certainly to concede some part of the scepticism which he indulges on the subject of cow-pox. Yet we suspect that, in the temper of mind in which the author is at present, a compliance even with what he now very unnecessarily requires would not induce him to change his opinion.

While we admit the possibility of an occasional occurrence of small-pox, after cow-pox, as we do that of a second appearance of small-pox, we feel it the less necessary to particularly examine Mr. G.'s additional cases, or to combat any inference which may be derived from them. At the same time, we cannot forbear to repeat, as we have done on a former occasion, that considerable doubts respecting accuracy of observations must be raised, when we find that some practitioners are continually meeting with failures, while others have never experienced any. This is a fact which ought to put every man of candour on his guard, when he hears of the long lists of adverse cases which certain individuals are always able to report.

We do not consider it as requisite to enter into the collateral matter which is contained in this publication.

*Art. 31. Answers to all the Objections hitherto made against Cow-pox.*

By Jos. Adams, M. D., Physician to the Small-pox and Inoculation Hospitals, and Author of "Observations on Morbid Poisons."

12mo. 1s. Johnson. 1805.

This is a popular address to the public on the subject of vaccination, in which the principal objections to the practice are stated and obviated. The author expresses his surprise and regret that cow-pox inoculation, which was introduced in this kingdom, and disseminated from it over the principal countries of the world, should now meet with an opposition here which does not occur elsewhere. To whatever region it has been conveyed, it has been received as a gracious boon of heaven, and its progress has been marked by the happiest and most unequivocal effects: but in this country, an outcry has been raised against it, which has the appearance of being particularly designed to act on those who are least able to judge of the real merits of an important practice.

Dr. Adams adverts to three objections, as the principal that are made against vaccination; the first, that it is no security against the small-pox; the second, that it is only a temporary security; and the third, that it introduces humours into the constitution. To the first objection, he deems it unnecessary to reply, because it cannot be doubted that it exercises some degree of influence on the constitution in preserving it against small-pox. The *quantum* of influence is a matter of doubt; and hence it has been thought that the constitution is rendered by it only for a short period unsusceptible of small-pox: but Dr. A. is of opinion that, even if it were admitted that there have been some instances of small-pox after cow-pox, it would not really afford any argument against the practice: since this might happen, '1st, by an imperfect vaccination; 2d, by the constitution being under the influence of some other disease at the time of vaccination; and, lastly, by the person being liable to the small-pox twice.'

The occurrence of imperfect vaccination has afforded reasons to some persons to condemn the practice on account of its difficulty and uncertainty : but the author shews that, in the early periods particularly of variolous inoculation, various mistakes occurred in the practice, which might reasonably be referred to want of experience, not to any real defect in the prophylactic powers of the disease.

For the effects of certain indispositions, more especially such as are hepatic, in preventing or modifying the cow-pox, he refers to some medical authorities on the subject.

That the small-pox sometimes occurs twice, and that the same is therefore naturally to be expected of cow-pox, Dr. A. justly regards as a very important circumstance in this inquiry.

‘ The histories (says he) of persons who have had Small-pox after inoculation for that disease, are so numerous, that I doubt not most of them rest upon much the same authority as those which are reported after Vaccination. However, among the number, some are well founded in both ; and probably about the same proportion. But perhaps it will be said, if the Small-pox happens after Inoculation for the Small-pox, and after the Cow-pox also, will it not be better to take the disease in the natural way, and make ourselves sure. If there was any greater security in the natural way, there might be some reason in this argument, but it will be found, upon inquiry, that this is not the case, for some families are so very liable to Small-pox, that the greater part will have it severely, and some twice over ; whilst other families are so little susceptible, that most of them will have it slightly, and some will not take it at all, either by inoculation or exposure.’

He then gives the history of a case, from the Memoirs of the Medical Society, of a person who had the natural small-pox very severely, when an infant, but who was carried off by a second attack of the same disease many years afterward.

The introduction of humours into the constitution is a fruitful and favourite subject of invective with the enemies of vaccination ; and this the author fairly, and we think very successfully, combats.—He gives, as reasons why vaccine and not variolous inoculation should be practised, ‘ that it is well known, that whoever is vaccinated, not only is equally safe from the Small-pox, much safer from humours than if inoculated with Small-pox, but also that he cannot convey the disease to another. Whereas by inoculation for Small-pox, a whole town may be infected, and numbers carried off before they are aware of the cause.’

An Appendix contains a letter from Lord Wetsmeath to Dr. Jenner, in which his Lordship mentions that one of his children was inoculated with small-pox in Ireland when an infant, but afterward had the disease in the natural way ; though the practitioner, a physician, considered him as having gone through the small-pox in the regular course, and as therefore being safe from the danger of infection.

Art. 32. *Remarks on the Report of M. Chaptal (late Minister of the Interior) to the Consuls, or former Government of France ; with an Examination of the Claim of M. Guyton de Morveau to the Discovery of the Power of the Mineral Acid Gases, in Contagion.*

In

In a Letter addressed to Wm. Wilberforce, Esq. M.P. &c. &c. &c.  
By James Carmichael Smyth, M. D. &c. 8vo. pp. 50. 1s. 6d.  
Callow. 1805.

Dr. Smyth, having received a national reward for the discovery of a mode of destroying contagion, is properly anxious to shew that it was not misapplied. The celebrated Guyton (*ci-devant* Morveau) lays claim to the discovery of this effect of the mineral acids, in which he is supported by Chaptal; who, in a specific report, contends that the British Parliament voted a reward to Dr. Smyth for a discovery made by Guyton himself.

The Doctor here satisfactorily shews that the vapour of the marine acid had been employed previously to the time of Guyton; though it must be admitted that its importance, as a destroyer of contagion, was not ascertained till the trials instituted by him at the church of Dijon, in the year 1773. It must also be conceded that Dr. Smyth was the first who used the vapour of nitrous acid in fever rooms; and that he determined its safe employment while patients were present. Without any doubt, therefore, he deserves much credit for the plan which he adopted:—but, with regard to his precise merit as a discoverer, we think that the transition from one mineral acid to another is too small,—and the variation from one compound, which gives out acid fumes by the addition of vitriolic acid, to another which affords them by the same means, is too little removed,—to allow to him the full extent of the credit which he is anxious to obtain. The principal part of the discovery consisted in ascertaining that acid fumes, and particularly mineral acid fumes, were destroyers of contagion; and if it should, in future, be found that acetous vapour, as given out from the *kali acetatum* by the vitriolic acid, is more effectual for the purpose than either the marine or the nitrous acid gas, a small portion only of the merit of discovery could be due to the author, considering those guides to the particular observations which are at present possessed.

Art. 33. *An interesting and authentic Account of the melancholy Ravages of the pestilential Disorder, or Yellow Fever, at Gibraltar, Malaga, Cadiz, &c. &c. accompanied with Observations on the Causes, Nature, and Symptoms of malignant Fevers, together with the most certain means of avoiding the dreadful Consequences of Infection at this awful Period.* By J. Grant, M.D. 8vo. 1s. Highley.

We expected to have found in this pamphlet an account, from actual observation, of the peculiar characters of that alarming disease which proved so fatal at Gibraltar, and in other parts of the south of Spain. In this hope, however, we were disappointed; since the author contents himself with copying newspaper details of mortality, and giving the general symptoms of malignant fevers, without reference to any particular epidemic. This easy mode of making a pamphlet is an appropriate introduction to the author's *sovereign preventive* of all contagious diseases, viz. the *Yellow Fever Remedy*, which, he tells us, is sold, with proper directions, at a shop near Charing Cross; and where, indeed, we have seen the words, **YELLOW FEVER**, written up in characters large enough to frighten the whole metropolis!

metropolis! We are not inclined to doubt the word of Dr. Grant's *M.D. ship*, when he informs us that he 'feels great pleasure in recommending that invaluable medicine!'

## MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 34. *The Life of Napoleon*, as it should be handed down to Posterity. By J. M—d. 12mo. pp. 147. 3s. Parsons. 1804.

As the title indicates, this is not a history of the dread emperor, but a romance, which strongly glances at him. The structure of the tale is rather fantastic: but Mr. M—d is not wanting in inventive powers, and is master of a neat flowing style. His deficiency lies on the side of his judgment. He is modest, and his aspirations excite an interest in his favour. We believe that considerable farther study is alone wanting to elevate him to that distinction, on which he very justly sets so high a value.

Art. 35. *The Castle of the Tuileries*: or, Narrative of all the Events which have taken Place in the Interior of that Palace, from the Time of its Construction to the 18th Brumaire of the Year VIII. Translated from the French by Francis Lathom. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The curious particulars with respect to Louis XVI. and his family, and other interesting incidents, which do not fall within the range of general history, but which are contained in these volumes, will secure to them an extensive perusal. For an estimate of this performance, and an account of the design of it, we refer to our notice of the original in M. R. Vol. 39. N. S. p. 474. The translation seems to have been hastily executed; often betraying the foreign idiom, and often disfigured by inelegant or incorrect English.

Art. 36. *Original Correspondence of Jean Jacques Rousseau*, with Mad. la Tour de Franqueville, and M. du Peyron, late Burgher of Neuchatel. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Johnson. 1804.

We have examined different parts of these volumes, and have found the translation to be faithful, and, in general, not inelegant. Our opinion on the singular correspondence, which they contain, will be found in our observations on the original work, of which we gave an ample account in Vol. xliii. p. 534. We do not regard the difference between the editor and the translator, respecting the behaviour of Rousseau on this occasion, as of sufficient importance to call on us to enter particularly into it. The view taken of it by the editor comes nearest to our own, while it best accords with the conduct of Rousseau in similar situations.

Art. 37. *An Historical Memoir on the Political Life of John Milton*. By Charles Edward Mortimer, Esq. 4to. pp. 82. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

"To laugh, were want of goodness or of grace:

Yet to be grave exceeds all power of face."

Reviewers surely ought to be grave: but they must be allowed to exercise their risible muscles if they see a man endeavouring to aid the brilliancy of the meridian sun by "a little farthing rushlight,"

rushlight ;" or assiduously employing himself to keep St. Paul's cathedral from falling, by fastening it with packthread to one of the chimnies in Paternoster-Row.—Yet what is there more ridiculous in either of these actions, than in Mr. Mortimer's attempt, by a few pages of pompous writing, printed on fine paper, and decorated with a vignette, 'to familiarize the name of Milton as a patriot?' We could scarcely believe the evidence of our eyes when we read these words. What, said we, looking to that shelf in our library which contains Milton's prose works, is that first-rate patriot ingulphed in the sea of oblivion, and does this little cockboat undertake to weigh him up? Shade of Milton! thou wilt be in a most "furious fret," when thou perceivest that the stupendous pyramid of thy fame is attempted to be propped and buttressed by reeds and straws:—but "Rest, perturbed spirit!" the insinuation is groundless. Thy name as a patriot has been, and continues to be 'familiar,' and we want not gravely to be informed by Mr. Mortimer, that 'thy merits entitle thee to a niche in the same temple which is adorned with the busts of John Hampden and Algernon Sidney.'

To be serious; this superficial view of Milton's political works and character can satisfy none of his admirers. The author has a just veneration for this great patriot's merit, and is animated in his delineation: but, had it been his object to induce modern readers to contemplate the nervous language employed by Milton in support of the principles which he defended, numerous extracts should have been made from his writings, and the memorialist should have kept himself in the back ground. Why did he not transcribe that passage in Milton's apology for Smectymnuus, in which he vindicates his moral character, and asserts his steady patriotism, against the aspersions of his enemies, who "flung out," as he says, "stray crimes against him at a venture?"—"These morning haunts are where they should be, at home, not sleeping, or concocting the surfeits of an irregular feast, but up and stirring, in winter often ere the sound of any bell awake men to labour, or to devotion; in summer, as oft with the bird that first arises, or not much tardier, to read good authors, or cause them to be read, till attention be weary, or memory have its full fraught: then with useful and generous labours preserving the body's health and hardiness, to render lightsome, clear, and not lumpish, obedience to the minde, to the cause of religion, and our countries liberty, when it shall require firm hearts in sound bodies to stand and cover their stations, rather than see the ruine of our protestation and the inforcement of a slavish life."—It is unnecessary to point out the errors which appear in Mr. M.'s unsatisfactory, yet shewy memoir.

Art. 38. *An Account of the Life of Dr. Samuel Johnson, from his Birth to his Eleventh Year*, written by himself. To which are added, Original Letters to Dr. Samuel Johnson. By Miss Hill Boothby: from the MSS. preserved by the Doctor; and now in Possession of Richard Wright, Surgeon; Proprietor of the Museum of Antiquities, Natural and Artificial Curiosities, &c. at Litchfield. Small 8vo. 3s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1805.

By a proprietor of a museum of curiosities at Litchfield, the MS. from

from which this little volume is printed might be regarded as a valuable acquisition: but we should suppose that the matter which it contains will not be now very interesting to the public. That Dr. Johnson himself did not deem these memoranda of his early life worth preservation, is evident from his having destroyed the greatest part of them; and perhaps he was not conscious that any portion of them remained. This fragment, which was obtained from his black servant, Francis Barber, occupies only 22 small pages, while the chasm in the MS. amounts to 38 pages. After all that has been written of Johnson, we could have spared the supplementary information that, a few weeks after he was born, he had an inflammation in his *buttock*; that, afterward, he had an issue cut in his left arm; that his scrofulous sores proceeded from his nurse; that he went up to London to be touched for the evil by Queen Anne, in the stage-coach, and returned in the *waggon*; &c. &c.

The letters of Miss Hill Boothby, aunt of Sir Brooke Boothby, are sensible, pious, and full of expressions of esteem for her literary correspondent: but we do not perceive the great utility of their publication. Some persons, however, who are eager to gather up every fragment relative to Dr. Johnson, may be pleased with this journal; and with the letters of a lady who is recorded by him to have possessed "the best understanding he ever met with in any human being."

Art. 39. *Intercepted Correspondence from India*: containing Dispatches from Marquis Wellesley, &c. and from the Governor-General in Council, to the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors, to Major-General Wellesley, &c. Together with Reports of the State of our India Possessions, sent by a French Emissary to General Decaen, Governor of the Mauritius; and Letters from various Persons in India to their Friends in Great Britain. 8vo. pp. 122. 5s. Sold at No. 348, Strand.

In the former case of the publication of *Private Correspondence* with persons in India, stated to have been obtained by the French from captured English ships\*, the accuracy and authenticity of the papers were much impeached. We know not whether similar doubts apply to the present letters: but the editor states that they were taken on board the homeward-bound India ship, the *Hope*; intimates no suspicion of their fidelity; and represents them as containing much information on the state of our affairs in the East.—The *official* letters have the appearance of being authentic, and are of an important nature: but the private correspondence has not always the marks of being genuine, or, at least, not of being accurately copied.

Art. 40. *An Historical and Descriptive Account of the Royal Hospital, and the Royal Military Asylum at Chelsea*: to which is prefixed an Account of King James's College at Chelsea. Embellished with Engravings, and interspersed with Biographical Anecdotes. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Egerton, &c. 1805.

It is not a little surprising that such a place as the Royal Hospital at Chelsea, begun by Charles II. and completed by William and

Mary, as an Asylum for maimed and superannuated soldiers, should hitherto have remained without an appropriate description, or guide. This desideratum it is the object of the publication before us to supply; which contains not only an account of the present edifice, but a description of the antient College of Divinity, projected by Dr. Sutcliffe, in the reign of James I. which formerly occupied its place; and some biographical sketches of its founder and first members.

The most extraordinary character noticed in the biography is that of the Archbishop of Spalatro, who was admitted a Member of this College by the King's Letters patent in 1622:

‘ Marcus Antonius de Dominis, Archbishop of Spalatro, came over to England in 1616, and professed the protestant religion, asserting that he had discovered various errors in the tenets of the church of Rome, and published his work, “*De Republicâ Ecclesiasticâ* :” his powers of disputation were strong and acute, his society much courted by the learned and the great, and his sermons attractive and greatly admired. Fuller, who is virulent in his abuse of him, says, that his sole object in coming to England was the attainment of wealth and preferment. King James gave him, soon after his arrival, the deanery of Windsor, the rich living of Illesley, in Berkshire, and made him master of the Savoy. With these, however, he was not contented; but upon the report of the death of Toby Matthew, Archbishop of York, he solicited the king for the vacant archbishoprick; this being refused, he made application for leave to retire to Rome. After much deliberation, he was ordered to quit the kingdom in twenty days, as he had been found guilty of holding a secret correspondence with the pope, without the king's knowledge. After living some time in poverty and obscurity at Rome, on a small pension allowed him by Pope Gregory XV. he died there in 1625, and his body was afterwards publicly burnt for heresy. Fuller sums up his character with observing—“that he had too much wit and learning to be a cordial papist, and too little honesty and religion to be a sincere protestant.”

‘ As a man he was by no means estimable; as a divine little less than contemptible; all his views were directed to the acquisition of wealth, to this idol all his vows were paid, and even his religious tenets were swayed by the casual advantage of the moment; but as a scholar, shrewd, correct and extensive, we must allow him no common share of praise; his learning was general, not confined to the scholastic forms and acute sophistry, with which polemical disputes were in general conducted; his views had a wider range, and he shone not only as a scholar, but a philosopher to whose shrewdness and acute observation we owe much; and he was the first who accounted for the phenomena of the rainbow, in his book, “*De Radiis Visûs et Lucis*.”

As the *Royal Military Asylum for the Children of the Soldiers of the Regular Army*, situated near to the Royal Hospital, is not perhaps generally known, we shall transcribe part of the account of it, which occurs at the end of this manual.

‘ The first stone of this elegant structure was laid by His Royal Highness the Duke of York, on the nineteenth day of June, 1811, accompanied by a great many General Officers, and a number of the nobility.

‘ The motives which gave rise to this establishment, and the principles upon which it is founded, are alike honourable to the present enlightened age, and congenial with the soundest maxims of policy, humanity, and benevolence.

‘ The necessity likewise of such an institution will appear obvious to all, when we consider the helpless and forlorn condition of many of these orphan objects of commiseration, who in this comfortable asylum will be clothed, have good wholesome food, acquire a decent education, be taught the principles of christianity, and finally, be made useful in whatever course of life they may adopt.

‘ It is environed on all sides with high walls, an handsome iron railing opens towards the grand front ; the ground is laid out in grass-plots and gravel-walks, and planted with trees.

‘ The edifice forms three sides of a quadrangle ; it is built of brick, with an elegant stone balustrade ; the centre of the western front is ornamented with a noble portico of the Doric order, consisting of four immense columns, which support a large and well-proportioned pediment ; on the frieze of which is the following inscription :—

“ *The Royal Military Asylum for the Children of the Soldiers of the Regular Army.*”

‘ Over this inscription are the imperial arms.

‘ The northern and southern wings are joined to the principal front by an elegant colonnade, with extends the whole length of the building, and forms a good shelter for the children in wet weather.

‘ The vestibule is in the centre of the grand front, on the left are two dining-halls, eighty feet long and thirty feet wide ; near these dining halls the boys wash every morning in a stone chamber, built for the purpose, which is furnished with a good cold-bath.

‘ Over the boys’ dining-halls are two school-rooms of the same dimensions ; here they are taught to read and write, and cast accounts. The school hours in the morning are from half past nine till twelve, and from half past two till five in the afternoon.

‘ It is intended to establish four trades for the boys, viz shoemakers, tailors, sadlers, and armourers. The two former are already appointed, and the workshops are erecting, and will soon be completed.

‘ On the right of the vestibule are the girls’ dining-halls, of the same dimensions as the boys’, at the extremity of these halls is the girls’ bathing-place ; this is also furnished with a cold-bath, which can be emptied and filled at pleasure.

‘ One of the school-rooms is fitted up as a chapel.

‘ When the complement of boys and girls is completed, they will jointly amount to one thousand, viz, seven hundred boys, and three hundred girls.

‘ The boys wear red jackets, blue breeches, and blue stockings, and caps.

‘ The girls wear red gowns, blue petticoats, straw bonnets, and white aprons ; they are taught to read, write, and cast accounts, knitting and needle-work of different kinds, and are constantly employed in all manner of household-work. And when the whole establishment

ment is completed as is intended, it will be most admirably suited for its purpose, and be a nursery for honest and useful members of society.'

The official establishment includes a Commandant, Chaplain, Adjutant, Quarter-Master, Matron, and Assistant.

Three plates exhibit separate views of the three buildings above mentioned.

**Art. 41.** *Relation of several Circumstances which occurred in the Province of Lower Normandy, during the Revolution, and under the Governments of Robespierre and the Directory; commencing in the Year 1789, down to the Year 1800. With a Detail of the Confinement and Sufferings of the Author; together with an Account of the Manners and rural Customs of the Part of the Country called the Bocage, in Lower Normandy; with the Treatment of their Cattle, Nature of Soil, Cultivation and Harvesting of their Crops, Domestic Management, &c. By George Greene. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Hatchard.*

We regret that this work has long escaped our notice, since it adds to the store of facts which throw light on the mighty convulsions that have happened in our vicinity. The sufferings of the writer, personally, were not inconsiderable; and they are here related in a way which creates a strong interest in his favour; for the narrative is wholly destitute of art, and exhibits every mark of genuineness. The author resided in France as land steward to the Prince of Monaco at Torigny in Normandy; and his observations on the manners and rural economy of that neighbourhood shew that, though a plain man, he attentively noticed whatever passed under his eyes. Though the work is now rather out of date, it still strongly engages the attention.

#### SINGLE SERMON.

**Art. 42.** *Preached on occasion of the late Naval Victory, in the Parish Church of Wellington, Salop, Nov. 10. 1805. By the Rev. John Eyton. 8vo. 1s. Crosby and Co.*

This preacher, resolving to be early in the field, has not waited for the day of public thanksgiving to deliver his sentiments on the late signal Naval Victory; the laurels of which are covered with crape on account of its having been purchased with the death of our skilful and gallant commander Lord Nelson: but he has stepped forwards, without loss of time, to improve, in a religious way, the public joy on this occasion. Mr. Eyton ascribes this victory to the favourable interposition of Divine Providence, in which view he represents it with great propriety as a subject for religious gratitude and praise: but we cannot perceive, on the position of the *moral* Providence of God, the propriety of Mr. E.'s assertion 'that the seasons at which we have experienced the greatest national blessings have generally been those at which iniquity has most abounded.' We have often read of the chastisement of nations for their sins: but we do not recollect to have been told that God was most kind when states were most sinful.—The preacher speaks to the general feeling, when he bids us to rejoice

*joice with trembling*, as the late victory has been dearly bought : but we cannot believe, if God be really on our side and fights for us, that we have any ground for trembling because of the increased power of the enemy by land ; since *if God be for us*, how impotent and despicable is all human power exerted against us ? and if, according to Mr. E., the Almighty chooses seasons in which sin particularly abounds for the communication of the greatest national blessings, we have a chance for prosperity than we are taught to believe by the preachers of Fast Sermons in general.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

*Nath. Cosius*—and *Resurgam*.—The remarks which we have lately had occasion to make, respecting some disputes among the Society of *Friends*, have drawn on us the remonstrances of two Correspondents, with the above signature ; who belong, we presume, to that society, and to whom our censures have not proved acceptable. We shall not, however, enter into any epistolary controversy on this subject : *what we have written, we have written*, and by that we shall abide ; conscious that our pen has been guided only by an adherence to those general principles which we shall ever maintain ; untinctured by any prejudice against this society, for whom we have always spoken, as we have felt, with much respect ; and uninfluenced by any personal motives, directly or indirectly. The parties are wholly strangers to us, in the most perfect sense of the words ; and even the letter of *Resurgam* discloses particulars respecting them of which we were previously ignorant. The insinuations of this correspondent scarcely deserved this notice, and certainly will obtain no more.

We can make no use of the intelligence contained in the letter (as we suppose) of M. Ortolani. If the works to which it refers come before us, we shall in course make due report of them ; until which time, *it is not our practice to recommend them*, as he requests.

J. W. of Bristol is informed that the volumes which he mentions never reached our hands, and that it does not now appear to us necessary to inquire for them.

X. Y.—*A Friend*.—R. B. and several other Correspondents, complain that they have not duly received our last APPENDIX, published on the 1st of October. The fault in this case must lie with the bookseller, either in town or country : to whom *positive orders* should be given. We have often heard of similar neglect.

\* \* In the last Review, p. 178. l. 10. from bott. for '*might*', r. *may* ; and line 8. from bott. for '*may*' r. *might*. P. 179. l. 20, for *ago* ; read *ago* ;



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ART. I. *Collections towards the History and Antiquities of the County of Hereford.* By John Duncumb, A.M. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 604. 3l. 3s. Boards. Evans. 1804.

IT appears that the public are indebted, for the materials from which the present publication has been formed, to the pecuniary assistance of the Duke of Norfolk, as well as to the labours of Mr. Duncumb; and we feel pleasure in stating that, as far as it has proceeded, it does credit to the munificence of the noble patron, and to the knowledge and skill of the industrious compiler. In every department in which his undertaking obliges the latter to exhibit himself, he has well discharged his duty; he has properly arranged and carefully digested the documents with which he has been furnished; and his narrative throughout is neat, uniform, and (as far as we can judge) correct.

We coincide in a great degree with the observations made by Mr. D. on the merits and circumstances of his subject, when he says;

‘The county of Hereford, although replete with a variety of materials to attract the researches of the Antiquary and the Historian, has hitherto so far escaped their notice, that no regular account of it has ever been submitted to the Public. As the ground on which Caractacus and the brave Silures so nobly fought, *pro aris et focis*, against the Roman invaders, and as the frontier, during the long continued wars between England and Wales, it presents an important series of national occurrences; whilst as a province, distinguished from the earliest dates of civilized society, by the residence of ancient and honourable families, holding their possessions by various and peculiar tenures; as a district fertile in its produce, and abounding in scenery of the most beautiful description;—it contains a fund of information, which, if properly collected and arranged, could not fail to be generally gratifying.’

We would here remark that, when the Heptarchy sunk in the kingdom of England, and the antient Britons became tributary, the animosities of the hostile nations were for the most

part displayed in struggles which were on too small a scale to rescue from oblivion the names of the leaders, or to transmit to future times the events which distinguished them: the misery, it is true, was sufficiently intense, but it was too limited in its extent to attract the regards of posterity. Even before Mercia disappeared as an independent kingdom, the brave Silures had ceased to be a distinct people. After Offa had extended his boundary, and fixed his residence in the centre of the county which is the subject of this work, we read indeed of horrible incursions; yet scarcely any thing occurs in these parts which merits the name of war. Previously to that period, there had been a long series of fierce and bloody contests for national independence on the one hand, and for dominion and territory on the other: but unfortunately they are involved in fable, and history is almost totally silent in regard to them.

In what the writer terms a General Introduction, he enters considerably into the civil and military transactions of that part of the island in which this district is placed; this is followed by its geography and natural history; and he then details the military and civil history of its capital, which brings to a close the present volume: the next, we presume, will consist of similar views of each division of the county.

According to the example of his predecessors, Mr. D. conducts his readers as far back as he is able into the darkness of time: but he possesses too well formed a mind to descend to any particulars which preceded the invasion of Julius Cæsar. In the first chapter of his Introduction, he expatiates on the period which intervened between the first landing, and the final departure of the Romans. He appears to us materially to under-rate the knowledge which the Druids possessed. The political power which this fraternity exercised, the systematic discipline which united the body together, and on which their unlimited authority was founded, the affinity of their tenets with those of the Oriental sects, and the reputation which the order in Britain had attained, (it being consulted for instruction by the youth of Gaul,)—these considerations, and the testimonies of ancient writers, incline us not to set so low an estimate on the attainments of the Druids as has been assigned by Mr. Duncumb. Nor ought it to be forgotten that their language is indicative of no mean intellectual culture; since in the estimation of good judges it is in a high degree energetic and copious, and there is no reason for supposing that it has subsequently undergone any material improvement.

The author thus describes the battle which terminated the career of the brave Caractacus; and he makes observations on the site of it, which prove not only that he neatly retails what the

the labours of others have placed within easy reach, but that he illustrates difficult points by researches of his own :

‘ Caractacus, darting through the ranks, exclaimed—“ *Remember, Britons, this day is to decide whether we shall be slaves or free !—Recollect and imitate the achievements of our ancestors, whose valour expelled Julius Caesar from our coasts, rescued their country from paying tribute to foreigners, and saved their wives and daughters from infamy and violation !*”

‘ Inflamed by this address, every one shouted with applause, and bound themselves by their peculiar oaths to conquer or to perish.

‘ Ostorius was staggered by the resolute appearance and formidable position of his adversaries ; but his troops eagerly demanded battle, and exclaimed, that Roman valour could surmount every obstacle. Observing, therefore, what points were most proper for the attack, he led on his army, and forded the river without difficulty : but before they could reach the rampart of stone, the Romans suffered severely from the darts of the Britons, and success long appeared doubtful. At length, forming the *testudo*, or *shell*, by locking their shields together over their heads, they reached the wall, and making several breaches in it, brought on a close engagement. Unprovided with helmets or breast-plates, the Britons could not withstand the attack, but fell back towards the summit of the hill. A few desperate efforts from this point could not avail them, and victory declared for the Romans. The wife and daughter of Caractacus were taken on the field of battle, and his brothers surrendered themselves prisoners : he himself escaped into the country of the Brigantes, and claimed the protection of their queen, Cartismandua ; but dreading the resentment of the Romans, which had been so recently directed against her territories, she was induced to deliver him bound to Ostorius.

‘ The site of this important battle is not agreed on by antiquaries and historians : some writers suppose it to have taken place on the banks of the Severn, above Montgomery ; on those of the Virnew or Tannat, two of the most northern branches ; or even on those of the Dee itself : but in opposition to these suggestions, it may be remarked, that some of these positions would transfer the battle to the country of the Cangi, whose territories are not represented to have been invaded on this occasion.

‘ Humphrey Lloyd was of opinion, that it was fought on a British post, called *Caer-Ddynod*, which is situated on the Alven, a small river falling into the north side of the Dee. To this idea, General Roy opposed the improbability, that Caractacus should have given up such a tract of country, affording many excellent positions, without making a stand until he came near the extremity, with the sea at a small distance in his rear. It may also be added, that the country of the Silures would in that case have been left open to attack, at a time when it was exhausted of all its means of defence.

‘ Camden thought that the high hill of *Caer-Caradoc*, in Shropshire, about six miles west from Leintwardine, was the scene of the battle in question. The similarity of the name to that of the British chief, either suggested or adds weight to the supposition. *Caer-Caradoc* evidently contained a British post, which was situated on the

top, by nature not easily accessible, and rendered stronger by art. So far it agrees with the account given by Tacitus; but, on the other hand, it may be observed, that the inconsiderable rivulet called Chapel-brook, which passes *Caer-Caradoc* almost at its source, could present no obstacle to the Romans: nor can the name be admitted to be decisive. as a second entrenchment bears the same appellation, near Church-Stretton, in Shropshire; and a third in the parish of Sellack, in this county: these might possibly have been occupied by *Caractacus* on former occasions, or so called in honour of that chief.

General Roy is much inclined to prefer *Coxwall-Knoll* to either of the places which have been mentioned: a careful examination has led the present enquirer fully to adopt that idea, and respectfully to suggest, whether, with a reasonable allowance for the conciseness of style peculiar to Tacitus, and for some partiality which he may have felt for his countrymen, the situation and other circumstances of *Coxwall-Knoll* do not strikingly correspond with the account given by the Roman historian. *Coxwall-Knoll* is a single eminence, situated in a beautiful valley near *Brampton-Bryan*. It is luxuriantly covered with wood; one part of it, that towards the south is within the limits of Herefordshire, whilst that towards the north is within those of Shropshire. On the top is a very strong entrenchment of British construction, and of much greater extent than that at *Caer-Caradoc*. The access is difficult on all sides: on the south "an artificial terrace is cut along the face of the hill," in front of the entrenchment; and the river *Teme* flows below in the same direction. The *Teme* continually varies in its depth and impetuosity, according to the proportion of rain received into its channel from the adjacent hills. Immediately opposite, and at the distance of one mile, with the river between them, is the Roman post of *Brandon*, "a single square work, with four ports," more strong towards *Coxwall* than in any other part.

In the supposed line of march by *Caractacus* and *Ostorius*, the latter would occupy *Brandon*, when the former had retreated to *Coxwall*: thus situated, the formidable position of the Britons, and the obstacles to be encountered in attacking them, were all within view of the Romans: they demanded and were led to the combat; fording the river, they reached the rampart, which probably stood on the artificial terrace described by General Roy, and finally defeated the Britons in the entrenchment above. To these conjectures, which are offered with the utmost deference, it may be opposed, that the *Teme* near *Coxwall* is but an inconsiderable river, having a smooth and gravelly bottom, and so little water, except when flooded from the hills, that troops may march across it in line, for two or three miles together. To this it is replied, that all rivers suffer some decrease, in proportion as the country through which they pass, becomes more cultivated; that the words of Tacitus—"præfluebat amnis vado incerto"—evidently apply to a river subject to frequent variations; that no difficulties were experienced when the fording took place—"amnemque laud difficulter evadit;"—and that probably the Romans exaggerated the obstacles, to increase their own reputation.

‘ It may be farther objected, that Caractacus is stated to have chosen a situation in all respects favourable to himself, and unfavourable to the Romans—“*cuncta nobis importuna et suis in melius*,”—whereas Coxwall, standing singly in the plain, afforded no retreat in case of disaster. To this it is merely replied, that, notwithstanding the escape of Caractacus himself, the capture of his wife and family in the field, evidently proves, that the means of retreat must have been very difficult.

‘ Finally, it may be urged, that Herefordshire was included in the territories of the Silures; whilst Tacitus, and other subsequent writers of note, have hitherto admitted that the battle was fought in the district of the Ordovices. No decisive proof, however, it is presumed, can be given, that the boundaries of the present Herefordshire were the precise boundaries of the Silures: on the contrary, the northern part of the county, including a large extent adjoining Coxwall, was not incorporated with Herefordshire until the reign of Henry VIII.; and in its original state, it is not unreasonable to suppose, that it may have belonged to the Ordovices.

‘ On these grounds, the opinion of the present enquirer is in favour of Coxwall: he has endeavoured to state his reasons with conciseness and candour; and the public will exercise their indisputable right of deciding for themselves.’

We have no knowledge of more than two Roman stations being situated within the limits of the present county of Hereford, viz. *Magna Castra* and *Ariconium*. The author very ably supports the opinion of Horsley, that the former was placed where the present Kenchester now stands, and the latter at Weston-sub-Penyard, in the neighbourhood of Ross.

The next period considered by Mr. Duncumb extends from the epoch of the departure of the Romans to the Norman conquest.

We do not deny the justness of the succeeding observations:

‘ The Silures were subject to the Roman authority about two hundred and fifty years; other parts of the island about thirty more—a period too short to have effected, under the circumstances already noticed, a total change of their disposition and character, or to have obliterated the memory of their former independence. Released from the power of the Romans, they naturally rejected, as hostile, every habit which they had imposed: impatient of controul, and strangers to the arts of legislation, they were incapable of cementing a general union, or of forming a wise and stable government. Different opinions led to different conduct; and the removal of the Roman yoke, introduced more serious evils than had even attended its imposition.’

We cannot repress an opinion, however, that a material fact relative to this point has been overlooked by the author; namely, the circumstance of a common religion; which, we think, must have had a great effect in cementing the union between the two people,—certainly much more than the civil connection

standing alone could have produced. What progress the Britons had made in civilization during the Roman domination, and in what proportion they had become Christian, are points which the remains of the period are not adequate to materially illustrate; and the tales of subsequent ecclesiastical writers are such as engage little attention.

Offa, the powerful king of Mercia, who afterward subjected his country to the payment of Peter-pence, first deprived the Welsh of the county of Hereford; and he came to reside within a few miles of its present capital. A dreadful incursion was made into it as late as the reign of Edward the Confessor, by Gryffyth Prince of Wales, and Algar Earl of Chester, the latter of whom had been banished from England; they ravaged the whole county, and sacked the city, leaving in it, according to the Welsh chronicles, nothing but "blood and ashes:" but Harold was ordered by Edward to avenge this injury, in which he succeeded.—The author concludes this part of the work with an extract from Domesday Book, enumerating the civil divisions of the county, and the names of the then proprietors of the soil.

The next chapter carries the history down to the end of the reign of Henry VII.

We read of destructive ravages committed in these parts by the Welsh, during nearly the whole of this period. Llewelyn joined his forces to those of the English barons, but his interference proved fatal to the remaining independence of his country:

'The independence of the Britons was now drawing to a close, and they were constrained to make peace with Henry, on condition that their Prince Llewelin, and his successors, should hold the principality of Wales of the King of England and his successors; and that all barons in Wales should hold their baronies and lands of Llewelin and his successors *in capite*, and do homage and fealty to Llewelin, who should do homage for the whole to the King of England. It may be imagined, that this was not done without extreme reluctance, on the part of the Britons: but their humiliation was not yet completed; for Edward I. afterwards invaded them with an army, too powerful to be resisted with success; and after the death of Llewelin, who was slain in battle by Mortimer, all Wales was reduced in subjection to the crown of England. The only attempt to recover their independence was made seven years afterwards, by Mael Gwyn Vychan; and it terminated in his imprisonment and death at Hereford. As an example of terror to his countrymen, he was dragged to the place of execution at the tails of horses, and hanged with two of his accomplices.'

These parts suffered in after times from the incursions of Glendour.

The

The Lacys, the Mortimers, and other families of this county, yielded to the mania of the crusades, and embarked in those eventful expeditions: it shared also in the glories of Crecy and Agincourt, in which several nobles and knights of this district were distinguished.

In the struggles between the houses of York and Lancaster, only one battle, that of Mortimer's cross, in which Edward was victorious, and in which Owen Tudor the husband of the Queen Dowager was taken, was fought within the limits of Herefordshire: Owen was beheaded in its capital.—On this occasion, mention is made by the author of a description of persons, of whom frequent notice is taken in our histories:

' The Norman nobles and others, who settled on the borders of Wales, acquired the name of *Lords Marchers*, and were styled *Marchiones Wallie*, in the Red-Book of the Exchequer, long before the title of Marquis (which was introduced in the reign of Richard II.) had any precedence amongst the nobility of England. They were generally barons who sat in Parliament; and there was also a Lord Warden of the Marches, whose jurisdiction appears to have resembled that of our Lord Lieutenants: "15 Johan: Rex omnibus ballivis com: Stafford: Salop: &c. sciatis quod commissimus dilecto et fideli nostro Johanni Marescallo, Marchiam nostram Wallie custodiend: quamdiu nobis placuerit, et ideo vobis mandamus roganti quatenus consilium et auxilium vestrum, eidem Johanni diligenter impendeatis, ad marchiam nostram custodiendam," &c.

' In the reign of Henry III. Humphrey Bohun, Earl of Hereford and Essex, had the custody of the Marches committed to him. The Lords Marchers, of whom were the Mortimers, Cliffords, Turbervilles, and others of this county, had particular laws in their baronies; and all suits between their tenants, were commenced and concluded before them: but if a question arose concerning the barony itself, or the title to it, the cause was referred to the cognizance of the king's courts. Their authority was not held under a formal grant from the crown, but was rather connived at by the prince, and arose, as a wise and necessary measure, out of their particular situations. Nor could their privileges be fixed to any determinate precinct, as their possessions varied in extent at different periods, and under different circumstances. The Lords were entitled to the goods and chattels of all their tenants who died intestate; and a Lord Marcher, under pretence of that custom, having seized on the goods of William de Hastings, *chevalier*, who held of the crown *in capite*, the king directed his writ to the sheriff of Herefordshire, commanding him to summon Thomas de Aston, William de Frome, and David ap Howel, "to inquire into the matter, and certify the same." The Lords Marchers claimed a right of finding silver spears to support the canopy, on all coronations; and they exercised that privilege at the coronation of Eleanor, queen of Henry III.

' When powerful efforts were made to reduce the Britons, the Lords Marchers viewed them with a degree of jealousy; they foresaw

that the complete subjugation of Wales would lead to a curtailment of their own authority, and, therefore, they did not always co-operate sincerely with the crown on these occasions. This particularly appeared when the last Prince of Wales was subdued by Edward I. : for after the death of Llewelin, "a note was found concealed in his sleeve, couched in obscure terms, and with feigned names, from which it might be plainly gathered, that several noblemen on the borders of Wales were not well pleased with the king's proceedings." But having fully succeeded in his design, Edward divided Wales into counties, and introduced many of our English laws and customs throughout the principality.

'The marches not being included in this division, became afterwards the scene of much irregularity and outrage. A court of judicature was, therefore, instituted for that particular district; and several noblemen and others successively resided at Ludlow Castle, in Shropshire, as Lords President of the Marches, in all the splendour of royalty, until the dissolution of the court by act of parliament in the first year of the reign of William and Mary. The preamble to the act stated, that the powers of the Lords President had been much abused, and that the institution "had become a great grievance to the subject." Amongst these grievances, were the mal-practices of the attornies and inferior officers of the court, "whereby," as the record states, "justice had lacked due execution, and the inhabitants had been sundry ways most grievously vexed and molested, as also by long delays of suits, and new exactions of fees, greatly impoverished, so that the court, which was in the beginning erected for the ease and relief of the inhabitants, was become to them, through such abuses, most greivous and intolerable."

'The superior members of the court were, a lord president, a vice-president, a chief justice, and council, among whom were many of the nobility resident in the several counties bordering on the Marches; subordinate officers were, a clerk of the council, clerk of the signet, keeper of the castle, gentleman porter, serjeants at arms, messengers, and a variety of others.'

We think that the industry of Mr. Duncumb would not have been ill directed, had it been employed in collecting and ascertaining the nature and extent of the jurisdiction exercised by these dread magistrates; and particularly those of the court at Ludlow, which was not abolished till after the revolution, long subsequent to the creation of the regular Welsh jurisdictions by the act of Henry VIII.

The curious record of the return made by Herefordshire on the demand by Henry I. of the feudal aid for the marriage of his daughter, is judiciously inserted in this part of the work. It throws great light on the state of property in the county at that period.

Chapter IV. brings the account to our own times; and here we meet with a very interesting document, namely a copy of the return made by the sheriff, of the levy of ship money

money in this county: stating, under the classification of the Hundreds, the name of every parish, and the sum at which it was assessed. We are next furnished with short sketches of the persons who have derived title from the capital of the county; the Fitzosbornes, the Milos, the Bohuns, the Plazagenets, the Staffords, and the Devreuxs: with the high fame and exploits of many of whom, our early history is replete. To the parts which dwell on the geography and natural history of the county, and its domestic economy and scenery, as containing less of novelty, we shall be contented with merely referring our readers. The author has incorporated with his account, the interesting facts and conclusions which he found in the writings of Mr. T. A. Knight.

Remote from the court of England, separated in the direct line of communication from its other dominions by a ridge of lofty hills, and cut off from all intercourse with Wales by difference of language, and a spirit of fierce hostility, this insulated state would, it is natural to suppose, retard the advances of the human mind; and we believe that facts which warrant this inference are not wanting: but the author, fair and candid as we admit him to be, yet being resident if not born within its precincts, cannot be expected to be very alert in his search of them, nor very forward to point them out. His report, however, of its peculiar customs, not a little countenances the view of the matter here taken.

Among other practices of the common people, Mr. D. mentions that of *Visiting Wells*: on which he observes that

‘The heathens are known to have paid adoration to wells and fountains: the Roman Catholic church also adopted this practice, and hence many wells are still termed *Holy Wells*, or retain the name of some saint to whom they were dedicated. St. Ethelbert’s Well, in the city of Hereford, and many others in different parts of the county are still in some repute for their supposed medicinal qualities. A well in the parish of Dindor excites much emulation on each New-year’s Day, in a contest for the first pail-full of water, which is termed *the cream of the well*, and is presented to some neighbour as a mark of respect, and a pledge of good fortune; a pecuniary compliment is expected in return. This custom appears harmless; but it would be difficult, perhaps, to point out any useful or laudable purpose resulting from it.’

Another custom is thus stated:

‘On *Twelfth Eve* thirteen small fires are lighted on the growing wheat, and cakes and liquor distributed on the spot, amidst the loud invocations of the party, for the prosperity of the owner, and a plentiful produce of grain on his lands. This custom is well known under the name of *wassalling*, or wishing health, (from the Saxon language,) and is of great antiquity. It probably arose from the Roman feasts offered

offered to Ceres, the goddess of corn, whose favour was thus invoked. A kind of divination is also practised on these occasions : a cake is placed on the horn of a favourite ox ; the health of the animal is then toasted, and if the cake is thrown in one direction, it becomes the property of the principal servant, or otherwise that of the lowest."

Descending now to particulars, Mr. D. begins with the capital, and details its military and civil history. He supposes it, though placed on a different site, to have sprung from the ruins of *Magna Castra*, and not to have been built before the settlement of the Saxons. We read of a synod held at it in A. D. 680. Offa, we have seen, resided in a palace in its vicinity. Athelstan, who negotiated a treaty with the Britons in this city, is supposed to have begun its fortifications ; which Harold is conjectured to have repaired and strengthened during the expedition which he made into these parts, in consequence of the ravages committed by Gryffyth Prince of Wales, and Algar Earl of Chester. It is also imagined that Harold built its castle.

In alluding to the commencement of the reign of Edward III. the author observes that the castle now began to be neglected ; and in the time of Henry VIII. it fell into almost total decay : having formerly, according to Leland, been "one of the fayrest, largest, and strongest castels in England." By means of a MS. in the collection at Hom Lacy, Mr. Duncumb has been able to throw considerable light on the dastardly surrender of this place to Sir William Waller, at the beginning of the civil wars, which is left unexplained in the histories of the period ; as well as on the state of the king's affairs in general in these parts. He also inserts interesting original details of the gallant defence which it made when besieged by the Scotch under the Earl of Leven. From the statement transmitted to their employers by the Commissioners of Parliament, who were sent in 1652 to take a survey of the possessions of the crown in this county, it appears that the remains of this once important edifice were then valued at only 85*l*. 'The keep, (adds Mr. D.) has since been levelled, and no part of the walls remain ; but the site of those which enclosed the larger ward is now converted into a public walk, and as such is deservedly admired.'

Treating of the civil history of this city, the author observes that it was the scene of that trial, the record of which has been given to the public by Dr. Hickes as an instance of the Saxon mode of proceeding. This relique is of far less value than we might at first suppose : since it serves for little else than to establish the fact of such a constituted jurisdiction, and to shew the rude state of the times. The Bishop, the Earl, the Earl's son,

and another, constitute the tribunal; two persons appear as officers of the crown; and the sheriff, and three others, whose names are inserted in the record, and all the freemen of the county, are said to have been present. The plaintiff, the son, demanded a decree for transferring to him certain lands held by the defendant, his own mother; on which the court asked whether any person appeared for the defendant; and one of the officers of the crown, who was also her son-in-law, answered that he should stand forwards, if any ground for the present action should be stated. Three of her neighbours, then in court, were sent to the defendant, to inquire respecting her right to the estates in question; and they reported from her that she held no estates to which her son had any claim; and that in the presence of the messengers, she had disinherited her son the plaintiff, and had devised her property, both real and personal, to her daughter, the wife of her advocate. On this bare denial of her son's the plaintiff's right, by the defendant, at the prayer of her advocate, the court decreed in her favour, and ratified the devise: the whole was then enrolled.

The Bishops of Hereford, in addition to their spiritual functions, were invested with important temporal rights:

‘In the jurisdiction which has prevailed in the city of Hereford, the bishops appear to have retained a more than common share of the civil authority; the extent and progress of which shall now be explained. Nearly half of the city, together with a considerable portion of the suburbs, form a district, entitled the Bishop's Fee; within this district the successive prelates have enjoyed very considerable privileges, and, on particular occasions, their authority has altogether superseded that of the civil magistrate, by extending over the whole city. As lords of this fee, they exercised the ancient rights denominated (from the Saxon) *infangenethef* and *utfangenethef*, by which they administered justice within their limits, and committed offenders to the custody of their own officers in their own peculiar prison, which was situated within the walls of the episcopal palace. By *Chal* and *Cbeam*, or *Theame*, they restrained and judged bondmen and villeins, with their children, goods and chattels; and by *Sac* and *Soke* their tenants were excused from the payment of customary burdens and impositions. They also held an annual fair, for the sale of merchandize, within their fee; during its continuance their power extended to all parts of the city; the markets were transferred from the usual places to that appointed by the bishop, and a porter was sworn at each of the city gates, to collect the tolls for his use. A bailiff was annually elected by a jury, together with a serjeant at mace, leather searchers, and alconners. They regulated the assize of bread and beer; and courts baron, leet, and piepoudre were held; and presentments and other usual business formally transacted.’

All the charters, down to that of James inclusive, recognize these rights; and a subsequent one, that of William III. though  
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it does not recite them, still does not revoke them, and therefore they are valid to this day. As, however, the exercise of many of them would be inconvenient, and of little benefit to the claimants, it has been long discontinued.

Very minute accounts of the corporate government of this city, certified by its bailiffs at the request of several Welsh corporate towns, are to be found in this volume; and they exhibit, in a very favourable light, our antient municipal administrations. They are translations, supposed by the author to have been made from original documents, or other authentic sources: but we should have been glad to have been furnished with satisfactory proofs, or even with reasonable presumptions, of their being genuine.

The author enumerates the religious foundations which antiently stood within the precincts of Hereford, and sketches biographical notices of those of its natives who rose to distinction. The founder of the noble family of Boyle came from its vicinity; the city itself gave birth to the famous Nell Gwyn; and a claim is substantiated in its behalf in the following passage, which has sometimes been questioned:

‘*Widemarsh-street* extends from the market place, or High-Town, towards the north, and was bounded in that direction by Widemarsh-gate. In this street was born the celebrated *David Garrick*, the unrivalled Roscius of his age. His reputation and merits are generally known and acknowledged; but as other places have contended for the honour of giving him birth, the following extract is given from the register of the parish of All-Saints, in this city:

“*David son of Peter and Arabella Garrick was baptized 28th February, 1716.—H. Lewis, Minister.*”

‘Mr. Garrick’s father was a French refugee, and had a lieutenant’s commission in a regiment of horse then stationed in Hereford. His quarters were at an inn called *The Angel*, and David Garrick was born there. His father was afterwards promoted to a troop in the same regiment.’

Davies, in his life of Garrick, properly stated this fact. See M. Rev. Vol. lxiii. p. 207.—This city also boasts of a man of science at the early period of the reign of Henry II. in the person of Roger de Heriford; and it produced in later years a writer who still ranks at the head of his class, in John Gwiliim, the celebrated Herald, nat. 1565. ob. 1621. Among its bishops, in antient times, stand most distinguished Robert Lozing, a great scholar in his day, and the founder of the cathedral; Breton, author of a legal treatise still esteemed by lawyers; and Cantilupe the saint. In more modern days, Godwin, Hoadley, and its last deceased prelate, of whom we have the following notice:

‘John

\* John Butler, a native of the town of Hamburgh, was next appointed to this see. In his early days he acted as private tutor in the family of Mr. Child, the banker; he was then a popular preacher in London, and possessed of sound parts, indefatigable industry, a good figure, and agreeable manners. Being introduced to Mr. Bilson Legge, he assisted that gentleman in a political controversy with Lord Bute, and rendered him further service in calculations on public finance. It was probably through this connection that Dr. Hayter, Bishop of London, appointed Mr. Butler his first chaplain; he obtained also the living of Everley, in Wiltshire, about the same time. On the recommendation of Lord Onslow he was constituted one of the king's chaplains, and obtained a prebend in Winchester cathedral. Commencing a political writer, he espoused Lord North in all the measures of his administration, and particularly in that of the American war which he endeavoured to justify in several pamphlets. In reward of these services he was made Archeacon of Surrey, and procured, what is termed, a *Lambeth* degree of Doctor in Divinity from the Archbishop of Canterbury. His next promotion was the see of Oxford, which was given to him by the minister in the year 1777, on the advancement of Dr. Lowth to the bishoprick of London; the living of Cuddesden was held by him at the same time, being annexed to the see; but this preferment was rendered locally unpleasant from the circumstance of his not having regularly graduated at either of the universities; he, however, retained it until the year 1788, when he was advanced to the bishoprick of Hereford, over which he presided until his death. He was twice married; his second wife was the eldest daughter of Sir Charles Vernon, of Farnham, in Surrey, *knt.* with whose family he became acquainted during the residence of Mr. Legge, at the Holt, near that town. He was charitable, without ostentation, his manners were extremely courteous, and his conversation agreeable to the last period of his life. He retained many of the political opinions which he had imbibed in early years; speaking of the Americans, he constantly stigmatized them as *rebels*, and treated their resistance to this country with much asperity. He published a small volume of sermons, a few years before his death, and was interred in his cathedral, A. D. 1802.\*

We have met with persons who considered this reverend prelate as the author of Junius's letters.—The lovers of sacred architecture will be interested by the elaborate account which is here given of the venerable cathedral: but we can only transcribe the author's relation of the unhappy catastrophe which befel it within our own memory. The height of the tower, from the base to the battlements, was one hundred and thirty-eight feet; the spire rose ninety-two feet above the battlements, and the weathercock was ten feet higher; making in the whole an elevation of two hundred and forty feet.

\* From the style of this tower it may perhaps be dated about the beginning of the reign of Edward III. On Easter Monday, A. D. 1786, this part of the cathedral gave way, and by its fall crushed  
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a considerable part of the adjoining nave, as well as that immediately under it. An expenditure of nearly £20,000 (including £2000 for the purposes of a general repair of the tower and of the whole fabric) has since proved very inadequate to its restoration in a style equal to its former appearance; it has not only lost the tower, but part of the site which it occupied, thereby considerably diminishing the length of the nave; and the whole is plainly finished with stone from the quarries of Lugwardine and Capeller hill. Of the sum expended £5000 was voluntarily subscribed by the laity, £2000 by the bishop and members of the cathedral, and the remainder was charged on the estates belonging to the church. The architect, Mr. Wyatt, has perhaps never been under the necessity of completing so extensive an undertaking at so limited an expence.

If this work arrogates no pre-eminence over other county histories, and if the author is not profound in all the subjects of which he treats, nor brings various learning to bear on the several parts of his narrative, still it must be owned that fairness characterizes his pages throughout; that he every where manifests a laudable desire to be full and accurate; and that his labours are those of an intelligent, sensible, and candid man. We shall be glad to see the undertaking completed, and be happy duly to pay our respects to the remainder of it, when it shall have made its appearance.

The form of this publication is suitable to the subject, and worthy of the patron; the paper is fine; and the typography is highly creditable to the Hereford Press. The text is illustrated by convenient maps, and neat engravings.

ART. II. *Tracts relative to Botany*, translated from different Languages. Illustrated by nine Copper Plates, and occasional Remarks. 8vo. pp. 280. 5s. Boards. Phillips and Fardon. 1805.

**F**EW students of botany, we believe, will hesitate to acknowledge themselves indebted to the present translator, for bringing within their reach several important and curious treatises; which were, in a great measure, locked up from the generality of readers. We shall briefly notice each article in the order of publication.

*On the Organs of Perspiration of Plants.* By J. Hedwig. Translated from the German.—The discovery of the perspirative ducts and pores of plants, which form the subject of this paper, is erroneously ascribed to Von Gleichen, whereas it is properly due to M. de Saussure.—Among the additions supplied by the translator, we have to notice the substance of M. Decandolle's curious observations on the cortical pores of leaves. These pores have not been observed on the stalks, except on  
such

such as in their texture approach to leaves. 'There are none to be seen upon the leaves of *Cuscuta Europea*, which singular plant, when immersed in water, affords no gas, whether exposed to light or darkness.' Fungi, Lichens, Hepaticæ, and Fuci, are also destitute of cortical pores. These last, it should seem, are found only on those parts of vegetables which are exposed to light and air. None of the immersed parts of aquatic plants are furnished with the pores in question: 'but plants entirely destitute of pores, while living in water, regain them when growing out of it, and *vice versâ*.—The blanched plants are also without them.'—M. Decandolle supposes that these organs are subservient to the process of insensible perspiration.

*Some Materials for the Illustration of the Botanical Geography of the South-western Parts of Europe.* By Professor Link. From the German.—These hints are extremely judicious, and may prepare the way for a more intimate acquaintance with a much neglected subject. The learned Professor embraces rather a wider range of inquiry than his title imports: but his statements would require more developement and illustration. In the mean time, however, they may suffice to warrant several important conclusions. Thus, we may infer that swamps and stagnant waters produce the same plants under different latitudes; that many plants grow in all parts in great abundance; that the *Musci Frondosi* are far from being frequent in the south of Europe; that various plants are larger in all their parts in southern than in northern Europe; that many species, which are smooth in the north, are hairy in the south; and that many, which are perennial in northern, are annual in southern regions. It likewise appears that the Flora of Portugal has much less affinity than might have been expected with those of Spain and the south of France, and hardly any with that of the Levant; while, on the other hand, it has a marked relation to those of the north coast of Africa, and of the south-western districts of *England*.

The lists of localities, with which we are here presented, appear, in general, to correspond with fact: but we know not why *Clinopodium Vulgare*, a native of our own island, should be banished to the south of Europe; and we can scarcely believe that *Centaurea Cyanus* occurs only in a cultivated state in southern latitudes.

*On the Nature and Mode of Production of Agallochum or Aloes-Wood.* By J. de Loureiro. From the Portuguese.—According to this writer, the plant in question is the *Agallochon*, and more recently, the *Xylaloe* of the Greeks; *Agallochum*, *Tarum*, and *Lignum Aloes* of the Romans; and *Agalugin* of the Arabs. It is a native of that part of India which lies beyond the Ganges,  
and

and is chiefly confined to the kingdoms of Cochin China, Laos, Siam, and Tonquin. From the ignorance of travellers and the avarice of druggists, the same appellation has been long bestowed on some sorts of sweet-scented wood of very inferior quality. The tree which furnishes the true aloes-wood is of considerable size, with ascending branches, and a smooth fibrous bark. From its botanical characters, M. de Loureiro classes it under *Decandria Monogynia*, and has named it *Aloexylum Verum*.

‘The manner in which *Agallochum* is formed within its mother tree, is analogous to that by which scirrhous tumours, consequent gangrene, and mortification, are produced in animal bodies’—

‘As the *Agallochum*-trade is very lucrative in the East, the natives of those regions go every year in search of it, at the expence of much hazard and labour, among the mountains; for which purpose they keep together in bodies of ten, twenty, or more, with provisions for a month, and with arms for defence against the wild beasts; such as tigers, rhinoceroses, elephants, and snakes, which abound in those parts; and with implements requisite for cutting the wood. They traverse the distant parts of forests, and examine every *aloexylum* tree they find. Such as are very healthy and have green leaves they pass by; those, on the other hand, which are either already dead, or have their leaves of a pale yellow hue, (a symptom of approaching dissolution) they immediately fell, cut them open in a longitudinal direction with their hatchets, and discover the object of their pursuit.’

The traders distinguish three sorts of the true *Agallochum*; of which the first, called Calambá by Europeans, and Ki-nam by the natives, is the most valuable and rare. It is peculiar to the mountains which lie to the west of the province of Binh-Khang, in the latitude of 30°. north

*On the Genera of Orchideæ, and their systematical Arrangement.* By Prof. O. Swarz. From the Swedish.—This is a long and elaborate paper: but we cannot abridge its technical details. The author, who has had the opportunity of examining two hundred species of this singular family, very ably exposes the inaccuracies of former botanists, and assumes more precise definitions. In extent of observation, however, he is greatly surpassed by the authors of the *Flora Peruviana et Chilensis*; who regard the region of the Cordilleras as the native country of the *Orchideæ*, and assert that upwards of one thousand distinct species of them may there be found within a very small tract of country.

*Some Botanical Observations, by Dr. M. B. Borkhausen.* From the German.—In consequence of repeated and personal observation, Dr. B. is enabled to state that *Orobis tenuifolius* is only a variety of *O. tuberosus*; that *Polygala amara* and *Monspeliaca* are specifically the same with *P. vulgaris*; that *Scabiosa ochroleuca* does not essentially differ from *S. Columbaria*; that  
*Viola*

*Violatricolor* and *arvensis* are only varieties of the same species; that *Pimpinella dissecta* of Retzius and Roth is often identified with *P. saxifraga*; that *Hieracium murorum* includes *H. pilosissimum*; and *H. sylvaticum* the *maculatum* of Schrank.

*Account of the Ule-Tree, (Castilla elastica,) and of other Trees producing the elastic Gum. By Don Vincente de Cervantes, Prof. of Botany in Mexico.* From the Spanish.—After having indicated some exotic trees, which produce an elastic gum, this Spanish botanist gives the characters and description of the *Ule*, or, as he terms it, *Castilla*, in honour of the late indefatigable Don Juan del Castillo. His account is illustrated by a very distinct engraving of the plant.

*Observations on the Genera Juglans, Fraxinus, and Quercus, in the Neighbourhood of Lancaster, in North America. By the Rev. H. E. Mühlenberg, with the Remarks of Prof. C. L. Willdenow.* From the German.—Not fewer than fourteen species of oak are here particularized: but want of room prevents us from entering into minutæ.

*Observations on the Plant called Erica Dabœcia, shewing the Necessity of referring it to a different Genus and Order. By Prof. Jussieu.* From the French.—The circumstance of four retroflected valves, in the structure of the capsule, induced M. de Jussieu to class the fluctuating genus in question, among the *Rhododendra*; while the inspection of its other characters, derived from the form and number of its several parts, also, limits it to *Menziesia*. Hence it is now designated *Menziesia polifolia*.

*Botanical Observations. By Frederick Ehrhart.* From the German.—This article consists of too many petty and detached remarks to allow of analysis.

It only remains for us to observe that the translator, in so far as we have been able to judge, has executed his part with fidelity and distinctness. Although his annotations are neither numerous nor extended, they are strictly applicable to the text, and manifest a laudable acquaintance with botanical science.

ART. III. *Memoirs of Marmontel, written by himself.*

[Article concluded from page 254.]

WE now arrive at a part of the work which is truly interesting,—a view of the society at the residence of Madame Geoffrin; from which we shall make several extracts. We begin, as we ought, with the lady of the house:

‘Hers was a singular character, and difficult to seize and to paint, because it was all in demi tints and shades; and, though very decided, it had not one of those distinguishing traits by which disposition is

usually marked and defined. She had kindness, but very little sensibility ; she was beneficent, but without one of the charms of benevolence ; eager to aid the unfortunate, but without seeing them, for fear of being moved by them ; a sure, faithful, even an officious friend, but timid, disturbed, whilst in the very act of serving her friends, with the fear of compromising either her credit or her repose. She was simple in her tastes, in her dress, in her furniture, but nice in her simplicity, having the delicacies of luxury in all their refinement, but nothing of their brilliancy nor of their vanity. Modest in her air, in her carriage, in her manners, but with a fund of pride, and even a little vain glory. Nothing flattered her more than her commerce with the great. At their houses, she saw them but rarely ; there she was not at her ease ; but she had the secret of attracting them to hers by a coquetry imperceptibly flattering ; and in the easy, natural, half-respectful and half-familiar air with which she received them, I thought I saw an extreme address. Always free with them, always on the verge of propriety, it was never overstepped. To be in favour with heaven, without being out of favour with her society, she used to indulge in a kind of clandestine devotion : she used to go to mass as one goes to an intrigue ; she had an apartment in a convent of nuns, and a tribune in the church of the Capucins, but with as much mystery as the gallant women of that day had their private houses for intrigue. All kind of state disgusted her. Her greatest care was to make no noise. She was ardently desirous of celebrity, and of acquiring a great consideration in the world ; but she would have it tranquil. A little like the lunatic who fancied himself made of glass, she avoided, as so many rocks, all that could expose her to the shock of human passions ; and thence her timidity, her faint-heartedness, whenever a good office required courage. The man for whom, with a full heart, she would have freely opened her purse, was not equally sure of the support of her tongue, and on this point she flattered herself with ingenious excuses. For example, it was her maxim that, when we hear our friends abused in company, we should never undertake warmly their defence, nor contend with the defamer ; for that was the sure way to irritate the viper, and refine its venom. She used to say that a man should praise his friends but very temperately, and for their qualities, not for their actions ; for on hearing it said of some one that he is sincere and beneficent, each can say to himself, I too am beneficent and sincere. " But," said she, " if you cite of him a laudable act, an act of virtue, since each cannot say that he has done as much, he takes this praise for a reproach, and seeks to depress it." What she most esteemed in a friend, was an attentive prudence never to compromise her ; and as an example, she used to cite Bernard, the man of all others most coldly precise in his actions and his words. " With him," used she to say, " one may be tranquil ; no one complains of him ; it is never necessary to defend him." This was a hint for heads a little lively like mine, for there were more than one such in her society ; and if any one of those she loved, happened to be in danger or in trouble, whatever might be the cause, and whethier he were right or wrong, her first impulse was to accuse him herself : on which point

point perhaps too warmly, I one day took the liberty of telling her that her friends should be all infallible and always happy.'

Next comes D'Alembert :

'Of this society the gayest man, the most animated, the most amusing in his gaiety, was d'Alembert. After having passed his morning in algebraic calculations, and in solving the problems of mechanics or astronomy, he came from his study like a boy just loose from school, seeking only to enjoy himself ; and by the lively and pleasant turn that his mind, so luminous, so solid, so profound, then assumed, he soon made us forget the philosopher and the man of science, to admire in him all the qualities that can delight and engage. The source of this natural gaiety was a pure mind, free from passion, contented with itself, and in the daily enjoyment of some new truth that recompensed and crowned his labours ; a privilege which the mathematics exclusively possess, and which no other kind of study can completely obtain.'

Marivaux is thus delineated :

'Marivaux would have been very glad to have had this jovial humour too ; but he had a business in his head that incessantly preoccupied him, and gave him a sullen air. As he had acquired by his works the reputation of a subtile and refined wit, he thought himself obliged to give perpetual proofs of this wit, and he was continually on the watch for ideas susceptible of opposition or analysis, in order to turn or wind them as his fancy dictated. He would agree that such a thing was true *as far as a certain point, or in a certain view* ; but there was always some restriction, some distinction to make, which no one perceived but himself. This exertion of the attention was laborious to him, and often painful to others ; but it sometimes gave birth to happy perceptions and brilliant flashes of genius. Yet it was easy to discover, by the inquietude of his looks, that he was in pain about the success he already had, or about that he was about to obtain. There never was, I believe, self love more delicate, more wayward, or more fearful ; but as he carefully humoured that of others, we respected his ; and we only pitied him that he could not resolve to be simple and natural.'

We remark great discrimination in the following character :

'Helvétius, preoccupied with his ambition of literary celebrity, came to us, his head heated with his morning's work. To write a book that should be distinguished in his age, his first care had been to seek for some new truth to publish, or some bold and new idea to produce and support. But as new and fruitful truths have been infinitely rare for the last two thousand years, he had taken for his thesis the paradox which he has developed in his work *De l'Esprit*. Whether it were that by force of contention he had persuaded himself of what he wished to persuade others, or whether he were still struggling against his own doubts, and sought to conquer them, we were amused at seeing him bring successively on the carpet the questions that occupied or the difficulties that embarrassed him ; and after having af-

forded him for some time the pleasure of hearing them discussed, we engaged him to suffer himself to be carried along with the current of our conversation. He then gave himself wholly to it, with infinite warmth, as simple, as natural, as ingeniously sincere in his familiar converse as you see him systematic and sophistical in his writings. Nothing less resembles the simplicity of his character and of his habitual life, than the premeditated and factitious singularity of his works; and this want of harmony will always be found between the manners and opinions of those who fatigue themselves with imagining strange things. *Helvétius* had in his soul the complete contrary of what he has said. There never was a better man: liberal, generous, without ostentation, and beneficent because he was good, he conceived the idea of calumniating all honest men and himself, by giving to all moral actions no motive but self love. Abstracted from his writings, we loved him such as he really was, and you will soon see what a resource his house was for men of letters.'

Mademoiselle *Lespinasse*, the object of *D'Alembert's* adoration, must not be overlooked :

'I cannot mention the graces without speaking of one who had all their gifts both in mind and in language, and who was the only woman that *Madame Geoffrin* had admitted to her dinners of men of letters; it was the friend of *d'Alembert*, Mademoiselle *Lespinasse*: a wonderful composition of correctness, reason, prudence, with the liveliest fancy, the most ardent soul, the most inflammable imagination that has existed since the days of *Sappho*. That fire that circulated in her veins, and which gave to her mind such activity, brilliancy, and so many charms, has prematurely consumed her. I will tell you hereafter what regret her loss occasioned. Here I only mark the place she occupied at our dinners, where her presence excited inexpressible interest. The continued object of attention, whether she listened or whether she spoke herself (and no one spoke better) without coquetry, she inspired us with the innocent desire of pleasing her; without prudery, she made freedom feel how far it might venture, without disturbing modesty or wounding decorum.'

We should transcribe the greater part of this second volume, if we admitted every agreeable passage that occurs in it; yet we must find room for the extraordinary portrait of the Count de *Creutz*, (a Swede.)

'One of the men to whom I have been most dear, and whom I have most tenderly loved, has been the Count de *Creutz*. He too was of the literary society and dinners of *Madame Geoffrin*; less eager to please, less occupied with the care of attracting attention, often pensive, still oftener absent, but the most charming of the convivial circle, when without distraction he gave himself freely to us. It was to him that nature had really given sensibility, warmth, the delicacy of moral sentiment and of that of taste; the love of all that is beautiful, and the passion of genius as well as that of virtue: it was to him that she had granted the gift of expressing and painting in touches of fire, all that had struck his imagination.

imagination or vividly seized on his soul: never was a man born a poet, if this man were not so. Still young, his mind ornamented with a prodigious variety of information, speaking French like ourselves, and almost all the languages of Europe like his own, without reckoning the learned languages, versed in all kinds of ancient and modern literature, talking of chymistry as a chimist, of natural history as a pupil of Linneus, and singularly of Sweden and of Spain as a curious observer of the properties of climates and of their divers productions; he was for us a source of knowledge, embellished by the most brilliant elocution.'

Besides this literary assembly, Mad. Geoffrin had a dinner for artists, to which Marmontel was admitted; and he speaks with raptures of her *petits soupers*, where he was also a constant guest.

Other societies, of a more dangerous kind, occupied part of his time; and in one of them an adventure occurred which cost him his liberty, at least for a time. A parody on some passages of Corneille, in which the Duke D'Aumont was ridiculed, was composed in one of these parties of pleasure by Cury, and retained by the unlucky memory of our author. He repeated it in another party, and was the next day denounced to the Duke, and by him to the King, as the author of the satire. In consequence of this affair, notwithstanding his address in vindicating himself at an interview with the Duke de Choiseul, as he refused to give up the author of the satire, he was sent to the Bastille. This prison, so terrible to others, was made very comfortable to Marmontel; and he even began to translate Lucan during his confinement. On his release, which took place in eleven days, he lost his patent for the *Mercur*: this, however, he might have regained, if he would have disclosed the author of the parody: but the weakness or duplicity of his patroness, Mad. de Pompadour, finally deprived him of this benefit.

We cannot follow the author in his agreeable trip to Bourdeaux, nor in the tragi-comic history of poor Lefranc Pompiignan, who was stung to death by the Parisian wits. In the course of this tour, Marmontel visited the canal of Languedoc, of which he speaks in terms of just admiration. We select a very striking account of the bason of St. Ferréol, the source of the canal, and the reservoir of its waters.

'This bason, formed as I have said by a circle of mountains, is two thousand, two hundred, and twenty-two fathoms in circumference, and one hundred and sixty in depth. The narrow pass of the mountains, that encompass it, is closed by a wall six and thirty fathoms thick. When it is full, its waters flow over in cascades; but in dry seasons these overflowings cease, and the water is then drawn from the bottom of the reservoir: the means employed for that purpose, are these:

‘ In the side of the mountain, two long vaults are constructed at the distance of forty feet from each other, which run under the reservoir. To one of these vaults, three brass tubes are vertically adapted, whose bore equals that of the largest cannon, and by which, when their cocks are opened, the water of the reservoir falls into an aqueduct constructed along the second vault ; so that, when you penetrate to these tubes, you have one hundred and sixty feet of water above your head. We did not fail to advance thus far, by the glimmering light our conductor carried for us in a chafing-dish ; for no ordinary light could have sustained the commotion of the air that the explosion of the waters soon excited under the vault ; when, suddenly, with a strong iron lever, our man turned the cock of one of the three tubes, then that of the second, and then that of the third. At the opening of the first, the most dreadful thunder echoed beneath the vault ; and twice, peal on peal, this roar redoubled. I thought I saw the bottom of the reservoir burst, and the mountains around shake from their bases, and falling on our heads. The profound emotion, and, to speak the truth, the affright, this noise had created, did not prevent us from going to see what was passing under the second vault. We penetrated there, amid the sound of this subterraneous thunder ; and we saw three torrents rush from the three tubes. I know of no motion in nature, that can be compared to the violence of the column of water, that here escaped from the reservoir in floods of foam. The eye could not follow it ; it could not be looked on without giddiness. The border of the aqueduct, in which this torrent flowed, was but four feet wide ; it was covered with freestone, polished, wet, and very slippery. There we were, standing, pale, motionless ; and if our foot had slipped, the water of the torrent would have rolled us a thousand paces in the twinkling of an eye. We returned shuddering ; and we felt the rocks, which support the basin, tremble at the distance of a hundred paces.’

Here we are again agreeably introduced to Voltaire, (whom the author visited at Ferney,) and here this illustrious writer speaks without disguise or ceremony. A very curious anecdote of Rousseau is related on this occasion, which it seems incumbent on us to notice, because it may guard some of our young readers against the seduction of his eloquent but dangerous writings :

‘ As we were talking of Geneva, he asked me what I thought of Rousseau. I answered that, in his writings, he appeared to me only an eloquent sophist ; and, in his character, only a false cynick, who would burst with pride and indignation if the world ceased to look at him. As to the earnest desire he had conceived of giving a fair exterior to the part he acted, I knew the anecdote, and I told it to him.

‘ In one of the letters of Rousseau to M. de Malesherbes, you have seen in what a transport of inspiration and enthusiasm he had conceived the project of declaring himself against the arts and sciences. “ I was going,” says he, in the recital he has made of this miracle, “ I was going to see Diderot then a prisoner at Vincennes ; I had in my pocket

ket a *Mercur de France*, which I turned over as I went along. I fall on the question of the Dijon academy, which has given rise to my first work. If any thing ever resembled sudden inspiration, it is the emotion that this question excited in me. Suddenly, my mind is dazzled with a thousand lights; crowds of vivid ideas press on me at once, with a force and a confusion that threw me into inexpressible disorder. I feel my head seized with a giddiness that resembled intoxication. A violent palpitation oppresses me, and heaves my bosom. No longer able to breathe as I walk, I fall at the foot of one of the trees of the avenue, and I there pass half an hour in such an agitation that, on rising, I perceived all the front of my waistcoat wet with my tears, without having been sensible that I had shed any."

'You have here a transport eloquently described. I will now tell you the fact, in its simplicity, such as Diderot related it to me, and such as I related it to Voltaire.

"I was," 'tis Diderot who speaks, "I was a prisoner at Vincennes; Rousseau came to see me there. He had made me his Aristarchus, as he has said himself. One day, as we were walking together, he told me that the Dijon academy had just proposed an interesting question, and that he was desirous of treating it. This question was: *Has the re-establishment of arts and sciences contributed to the improvement of morals?* Which side will you take?" asked I. "The affirmative," answered he. "'Tis the asses' bridge," said I; "all ordinary talents will take that road; and you will find there only common ideas, whereas the contrary side presents a new, rich, and fertile field for philosophy and for eloquence"—"You are right," returned he, after a moment's reflection, "and I'll take your advice." Thus from that moment, added I, his part and his mask were decided.

"You do not astonish me," said Voltaire; "that man is factitious from head to foot; he is so in mind and in his soul. But it is in vain for him to play now the stoick and now the cynick; he will eternally belie himself, and his mask will stifle him."

It is truly strange that the magic of style should have imposed, as *philosophy*, on many well-meaning readers, the excen-  
tricities of this apostle of immorality.

The origin of the tale of Annette and Lubin is here given; and it serves to shew the peculiar facility and rapidity with which Marmontel executed this species of composition. In such occupations, and in different delicious societies, Marmontel disposed of his time, till new vacancies in the French academy excited his hopes of entering it. He was at length elected, after many difficulties, the recital of which he has contrived to render interesting; and in the course of his detail, we meet with some instances of the querulousness of authors which are truly ludicrous.

The history of Mad. Lespinasse, singular, romantic, and wrought up with all the charms of Marmontel's manner, ought to be extracted into our pages: but it has a fault with us, of which the reader would not be sensible; it is too long for our limits.

The loss of this extraordinary woman embittered and abridged the remainder of D'Alembert's life.

The close of this volume introduces us to the society at the house of Baron d'Holbach, and contains some interesting sketches of literary politics. As this assembly was considered as a focus of atheism, we shall quote Marmontel's relation, in part :

' We were no longer led and held by leading strings, as at Madame Geoffrin's. But this liberty was not licence, and there are revered and inviolable objects that were never submitted to the debate of opinions. God, virtue, the holy laws of natural morality, were there never subjected to doubt, at least in my presence ; this I can attest. The career was still vast enough ; and mind took such bold flights there, that I sometimes thought I heard the disciples of Pythagoras or of Plato. It was there that Galiani was so astonishing for the originality of his ideas, and for the adroit, singular, unforeseen turn, by which he effected their developement ; it was there that the chemist Roux revealed to us, like a man of genius, the mysteries of nature ; it was there that Baron d'Holbach, who had read every thing, and forgotten nothing interesting, poured out abundantly the riches of his memory ; it was there above all, with his mild and persuasive eloquence, and his face sparkling with the fire of inspiration, that Diderot spread light into every mind, and his warmth into every heart. He that has only known Diderot by his writings has not known him. His systems on the art of writing disfigured his charming simplicity. When he was animated by conversation, and suffered the abundance of his ideas to flow from their source, he forgot his theories and suffered himself to be carried on by the impulse of the moment ; it was then that he was enchanting. In his writings he never knew how to form a whole ; that first operation, that regulates and puts every thing in its place, was for him too slow and too painful. He wrote with fire, before he had meditated any thing : so that he has written beautiful pages, as he used to say himself, but he has never written a book. This defect of plan disappeared in the free and varied course of conversation.

' One of Diderot's beautiful moments, was when an author consulted him on his work. If the subject were worth the pains, you should have seen him seize it, penetrate it, and at one view discover of what riches, and of what beauties it was susceptible. If he perceived that the author had succeeded ill, instead of listening to the reading, his fancy supplied the defects of the work. If it were a play, he would imagine new scenes, new incidents, new traits of character ; and thinking he had heard what he had meditated, he extolled to us the piece that had just been read to him, and in which, when it appeared, we found scarcely any thing of what he had cited of it. In general, and in all the branches of human knowledge, all was so familiar to him, and so present to his mind, that he always appeared prepared for whatever might be said to him ; and his most sudden perceptions were like the results of recent study, or of long meditation.

' This

‘ This man, one of the most enlightened of the age, was likewise one of the most engaging ; and particularly on what concerned moral goodness ; when he spoke freely on it, I cannot express what charm the eloquence of sentiment had in him. His whole soul was in his eyes, and on his lips. Never did the face paint better the goodness of the heart.’

We here again meet with an instance of meanness and disingenuity in Rousseau,—qualities which Marmontel seems happy in bringing to light : but the story is too long for insertion.

On this occasion, Marmontel speaks of Rousseau’s well-known quarrel with David Hume ; and he asserts that, while Rousseau was accusing Hume of the most treacherous designs, Hume was endeavouring to efface the bad impressions which Rousseau had left of himself, at the Baron d’Holbach’s parties. The concluding reflections of these passages well deserve the attention of our readers ; and particularly of those who are beginning their literary career :

‘ What ravages had an excess of pride made in a soul naturally gentle and tender ! With so much intellect, and such talents, what weakness, what littleness, what contemptible meanness in that restless, melancholy, irascible, and vindictive vanity, that was irritated at the bare idea of an attempt to wound it ; that fancied enemies where nothing indicated them, and that never pardoned these imaginary crimes ! What an important lesson to minds that incline to the vice of vanity ! Without it, no one would have been more beloved nor more esteemed than Rousseau. It was the poison of his life : it rendered services odious to him, benefactors insupportable, gratitude importunate ; made him injure and repulse friendship ; and caused him to live wretched, and die almost abandoned.’

In recounting an interview with the celebrated M. D’Argenson in his retreat, we are presented with a striking picture of the miseries of ambition :

‘ As I was walking with him in his gardens, I perceived a marble statue at a distance ; I asked him what it was. “ It is that,” said he, “ which I have no longer the courage to look at.” And as we turned away : “ Ah ! Marmontel ! if you knew with what zeal I have served him ! If you knew how often he assured me that we should pass our lives together, and that I had no better friend in the world than him ! There are the promises of kings ! This their friendship !” and in saying these words, the tears started in his eyes.

‘ In the evening, during supper, we remained alone in the drawing-room. This drawing-room was hung with pictures, that represented the battles in which the king had served in person with him. He shewed me where they were placed during the action ; he repeated to me what the king had said to him ; he had not forgotten a word. “ Here,” said he, in speaking of one of these battles, “ I was two hours

hours in the firm persuasion that my son was dead. The king had the kindness to appear to sympathise in my affliction. How changed is he now ! My sorrows no longer touch him." These ideas haunted him ; and, if he were suffered to indulge them, he sunk buried, as it were, in his grief. His daughter-in-law, Madame de Voyer, would then hasten to seat herself by his side, press him in her arms, and caress him ; while he, like a child, letting fall his head on the bosom or on the knees of her who consoled him, would bathe them with tears that he did not wish to hide.'

A dangerous illness, which affected Marmontel not long afterward, gave rise to his *Belisarius* ; and he passed many sleepless nights in composing it. This work, which gained him great reputation, attracted the censures of the Sorbonne ; and he seems to have almost invited theological hostility, that his enemies might be diverted from an attack on some political passages, which might have produced far more serious consequences.—The anathemas of the Sorbonne were opposed by the epigrams and squibs of Voltaire ; the public laughed, and continued to read *Belisarius*.

On the occasion of the author's accompanying two ladies to a watering place, we are entertained with the history of Mad. de Séran's platonic connection with Louis XV., and with other amusing anecdotes.

At his return to Paris, Marmontel began to compose operas, first with an intention of assisting Gretry, the musician ; and then from inclination. He was soon afterward more seriously employed, in his office of historiographer of France,—an appointment which was solicited for him by the Duke d'Aiguillon ; and in the continuation of the *Encyclopedia*.

In the happy *early* days of the reign of Louis XVI., Marmontel acquired some slight degree of favour at court : but it was soon clouded by the part which he took in the affair of Gluck and Piccini. He was a warm Piccinist, and in course lost all prospect of notice from the Queen.

We now approach an important epoch of Marmontel's life ; that of his marriage with Madlle. de Montigny. This story would have formed a very pretty tale, in the author's own manner ; and indeed the recital is abundantly interesting without any addition to the facts.—Shortly after this event, he became acquainted with Madame Necker. We transcribe the character of this lady, as we find it in the translation before us :

'A stranger to the manners of Paris, Madame Necker had none of the allurements of a young French woman. In her manners, in her language, it was neither the air, nor the tone of a woman educated in the school of the arts, and formed in the school of the world. Without taste in her dress, without ease in her carriage, without  
invitation

invitation in her politeness ; her understanding, like her countenance, was too formal to have grace.

‘ But a charm more worthy of her was that of decorum, of candour, of kindness. A virtuous education, and solitary studies, had given her all that cultivation can add in the soul to an excellent disposition. Her heart was perfect ; but in her head, opinion was often confused and vague. Meditation, instead of clearing her ideas, troubled them ; by exaggerating, she thought she enlarged them ; to extend them, she bewildered herself in abstractions, or in hyperboles. She seemed to see certain objects only through a mist that magnified them to her eyes ; and then her expressions were so inflated that their emphasis would have been laughable, had you not known that she was ingenuous.

‘ Taste in her was less a feeling than a result of opinions, collected and transcribed into her pocket-book. Had she never cited her examples, it would have been easy to say on what and after whom her judgment had formed itself. In the art of writing she only esteemed elevation, majesty, pomp. Gradations, shades, the varieties of colouring and of tone, touched her feebly. She had heard much in praise of the genuine simplicity of Lafontaine, of the *naturalness* of Sevigné ; she would talk of them from hear-say, while she felt them but little. The graces of negligence, ease, the flow of soul, were unknown to her. Even in conversation, familiarity displeased her. I often amused myself with seeing how far she carried this delicacy. One day I cited to her some familiar expressions, which, I said, I thought might be received into the noblest style : as *faire l’amour ; aller voir ses amours ; commencer à voir clair ; prenez votre parti ; pour bien faire, il faudroit ; non, vois-tu ; faisons mieux, &c.* She rejected them as unworthy a dignified style. “ Racine,” said I to her, “ has been less difficult than you. He has employed them all ;” and I shewed her the examples. But her opinion, once established, was invariable ; and the authority of Thomas, or that of Buffon, was for her an article of faith.

“ You would have said that she reserved rectitude and accuracy for the rule of her duties. There, all was precise and severely measured ; even the amusements in which she seemed desirous of indulging had their reason, their method.

‘ You would see her wholly occupied with making herself agreeable to her society, eager to welcome those she had admitted to it, attentive to say to each what could most please him ; but all this was premeditated ; nothing flowed naturally, nothing created illusion.

‘ It was not for us, it was not for herself that she exerted all her cares ; it was for her husband. To make him acquainted with us, to win our favour for him, to have him spoken of with eulogy in the world, and to begin his renown, was the principal object of the foundation of her literary society. But it was requisite too that her drawing-room, and that her dinner should be a recreation, a spectacle for her husband ; for indeed he was there only a cold and silent spectator. Except a few smart words that he introduced here and there, he sat mute and inanimate, leaving to his wife the care of supporting the conversation. She did all she could, but her mind had none of those  
pretty

pretty graces that are the soul of the familiar dialogue of the table. Not a single sally, not one vivid touch, not one flash of gaiety that could awaken wit. Restless, troubled as soon as she saw the scene and the dialogue languish, she sought the cause of it in our eyes. Sometimes, even, she had the sincerity to complain of it to me. "How can it be otherwise, madame," used I to say to her, "wit is not always at our command, nor are we always in a humour to be engaging. M. Necker himself is, perhaps not every day amusing."

With his matrimonial connection, Marmontel adopted a stricter degree of morality; which, indeed, nothing is so likely to produce as the intimate society of an amiable woman:—he mentions this circumstance, on the subject of Rousseau's specious but profligate romance of *Heloise*, and illustrates it by some well founded and striking remarks. It is evident, however, that he felt a rooted dislike to Rousseau, whom he holds up to reproach on every occasion.

Marmontel succeeded D'Alembert as secretary to the French Academy, and preserved this place till the Revolution. The character of Thomas, who was early snatched from the literary world, is delineated with great force and eloquence, in speaking of his new associates in that body.

Towards the close of the third volume, the author interrupts the course of his narration, or rather abandons the events which relate immediately to himself, to give an abridged view of the French Revolution; and here, we confess, ends our relish for the work. Although Marmontel's sketch of the events is spirited and elegant, yet, as it possesses no claims no novelty, and is more cursory than other views of the same subject, we have not found it very interesting. It is indeed painful to revert to this topic, on which we have already *supped full with horrors*, and which has disappointed the hopes of the best friends of liberty and humanity.—Some passages, however, occur in this detail, which deserve particular attention: such is the dialogue between Marmontel and Chamfort; which shews the determination of Mirabeau and his party completely to subvert the established order of things. The passage is too long for our quotation, but we recommend it to every reader. The events which followed prove this melancholy truth, that in times in which the popular mind is agitated, the maddest views become most successful, and wisdom confers neither credit nor safety.

We here terminate our review of this very amusing and instructive book; which to the merit of truth adds all the graces and attractions of a work of fancy. To adapt it for general reading, indeed, some passages ought to be omitted:

*Decipit*

*Decipit exemplar vitii imitabile :*

but the philosopher, as well as the man of the world, may draw the most important lessons from its perusal.

Marmontel died at his little cottage at Abbeville, on the 31st December 1799, of an apoplectic fit.

ART. IV. *An Excursion to the Highlands of Scotland, and the English Lakes, with Recollections, Descriptions, and References to Historical Facts.* 8vo. pp. 300. 9s. Boards. Mawman. 1805.

ACCORDING to this tourist and his travelling companion, (W. Salte, Esq.) 'one of the best legacies which man can bequeath to posterity, is a book enlivened with innocent merriment, or stored with information of solid and extensive utility.' Under this description we cannot exactly class the present volume, notwithstanding its recollections, descriptions, and references: but we must allow, that it possesses the merits of fine paper and typography; and that it is illustrated and embellished by a distinct outline of the route, and by views of Inverary, Loch-Lomond, and Patterdale. We may add, that the itinerary is sufficiently comprehensive, as it includes Huntingdon, Stamford, Doncaster, York, Harrogate, Durham, Sunderland, Newcastle, Alnwick, Berwick, Dunbar, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Inverary, Loch-Lomond, Hamilton, Lanark, Carlisle, the lakes of Cumberland and Westmorland, Kendal, Lancaster, Liverpool, Chester, Nantwich, Birmingham, Warwick, Woburn, St. Alban's, &c. The author, who, we learn from the dedication, is Mr. Mawman, the publisher of the work, manifests a disposition to enjoy emancipation from the bustle and confinement of the capital, and is usually pleased; except when the deficient *chaussure* of the Scottish females, or a disregard to cleanliness, extorts from his pen the language of pity or of censure. His style is rather too much interlarded with epithets, and occasionally borders on inflation. His sentiments, though rarely profound, or peculiarly ingenious, are consonant to our notions of a liberal and well-trained mind. Yet we perceive few approaches to genuine wit and sprightliness, or to information which can aspire to the character of 'solid and extensive utility.' Mr. Mawman's pretensions, indeed, are much more limited; for he avows, in the dedication, that the principal object of the publication is attained by expressing his value for Mr. Salte's friendship, and the respect which he feels for his character. The reader is likewise admonished that, if he tires of the book, he may let it alone: but, if he has already paid for it, this is no saving consolation.

It happens unfortunately for the attractiveness of this performance, that the same ground has of late been repeatedly described, and that the same remarks have been frequently presented to the public with more or less felicity of manner. Although, however, we cannot afford to retrace such a beaten track, we are glad to point to a few passages which deserve to be noticed on the score of novelty, or of interest. Such is the anecdote relative to the late Marquis of Exeter: the principal circumstances of which we have long known to be true, but which have not been generally made public:

\* There are some circumstances in the life of the late noble possessor of Burleigh, which deserve commemoration. In his youth, while Mr. Cecil (his uncle being then Earl of Exeter) he married a lady of very large fortune. In a few years, having suffered two of the deepest wounds which the severity of fortune can inflict, the loss of his property by gaming, and of his wife by divorce, he determined to abandon the fashionable world, and retired under the name of Jones to a village in Shropshire. There he at first occupied a lodging, but soon built a small cottage; and continued for some years in such profound obscurity, that hardly a trace of him could be discovered by his friends: while the inhabitants of the village formed the wildest conjectures concerning the solitary stranger. His agreeable manners, however, soon rendered him an acceptable neighbour. One evening, at the table of the rector of the parish, he displayed so much knowledge of the world and such a degree of classical information, that his host told him, his education and manners were too conspicuously superior to those of the character which he assumed (*viz.* that of a servant who had gained a small independence in the family of a nobleman,) not to excite considerable doubts, both of the name which he bore and the account which he gave of himself. This remark induced Mr. Cecil, after the strictest injunction of secrecy, to disclose his real history.

\* Amongst the farmers, whom he occasionally visited, was one of the name of Hoggins. This person had a daughter about eighteen years of age, so beautiful and amiable, that Mr. Cecil made her an offer of his hand. She referred him to her father, who, on account of the mystery involving his character, objected to the match. To this he replied, that the offer was much more advantageous than either the father or the daughter could reasonably expect. The farmer then consulted the clergyman, who told him he was not at liberty to give him the desired information: but he probably expressed himself upon the occasion, so as to convince the inquirer, that he ought not to withhold his consent; for the marriage was soon after solemnized (in the year 1791) and Mr. and Mrs. Jones retired to their cottage.

\* Lord Exeter being at the point of death, the steward was dispatched in search of the heir, whom he found at Bolas with a wife and two children. Mr. Cecil, having contrived still to remain unknown, proposed to his lady a journey to Stamford in the stage-coach. Before their arrival, the uncle was no more. To Burleigh they were conveyed in a chaise; and, as they proceeded through the park, Mr.  
Cecil

Cecil (now Earl of Exeter) repeatedly asked his fair companion, how she liked the grounds and the situation of the mansion : he then proposed, that they should "see the house;" and, while the cottager was gazing with astonishment at the novel scene of so much magnificence, told her that these objects of her admiration, together with many which he would afterwards shew her, were her own, and that she was the Countess of Exeter. The sudden communication of this unexpected grandeur was too powerful for her to sustain, and she was carried motionless into her apartment.

'The remark, however, that great and sudden elevations seldom contribute much to happiness, was here fully exemplified. Admired for her beauty and early attainment of elegant manners, beloved for her humility and amiable conduct, amidst those scenes of splendour Lady Exeter appeared unhappy. Her perpetual solicitude to acquire those accomplishments, which she thought requisite for her new station, probably preyed upon her spirits and accelerated her death. She died in the bloom of life (at the age of 24) in January, 1797, leaving two sons and a daughter, the present Marquis, Lord Thomas, and Lady Sophia Cecil.'

The mountainous district, which is indented by the Gare-Loch \*, is thus depicted :

'In this wild romantic scenery, the eye wanders in vain to discover a solitary cottage, or even a spot of cultivated earth ; and till our arrival at the inn of Arroquhar, nothing was to be seen but a few mean huts, here and there a half-naked human being, and at intervals a boat on the lake with a fisherman and his boy.

'A drizzling rain gave a thick darkness to the natural dinginess of the lake, the effect of which was still farther augmented by the seaweed that clung to the shores and rocks, and rode on the surface of the mournfully dashing waves ; and by the lowering clouds which enveloped in obscurity the tops of the hills, and threw a sublime and awful majesty over this dreary region. The sides of the lake stretched along without the intervention of trees, or the relief of any vegetation upon its banks ; and a solitary boat slowly moving across appeared to us almost as passing

" the melancholy flood,  
With that grim ferryman which poets write of,  
Into the kingdom of perpetual night."

'Near the head of the lake, through a scene made up of mountain, water, and sky, a yawning chasm opens into Glen-croe, guarded on each side by two black and rugged hills. Had Virgil seen this horrid gap, he could not have given a more appropriate description of

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\* Improperly called *Loch-Gare* in the text. This last-mentioned is an inlet of Loch Fyne. We also observe *Spira* for *Shira*, and *Torbet* for *Tarbet*. In most instances, however, Mr. M.'s topographical nomenclature is sufficiently correct.

it, than in the words which describe the entrance into the realms of Pluto :

“ Spelunca alta fuit, vastoque immanis hiatu,  
Screpea, tuta lacu nigro.”

‘ It is hardly possible to cast more gloom upon these dreary scenes; it can only be heightened by a vivid imagination painting the horrors of winter, and adding the fictitious description of this country by Procopius, as translated by Mr. Gibbon.’

The writer's notices of the character of the Highlanders, and his commiseration of their hardships, are alike creditable to the qualities of his head and of his heart;—though not original, they are founded in fact, and should be frequently recalled to every lover of his country. We shall only venture to hint that the engrossing of farms will probably be found, on mature examination, to be the necessary and *beneficial* consequence of increasing population in the low country, and of the general prosperity of our island. As our northern mountains are certainly unfit for the purposes of tillage, the community can have no reason for murmuring at their gradual conversion into sheep-walks and grazing districts. A greater extent of productive soil may thus be allotted to the culture of grain; while the possessors of highland estates are enabled to improve their circumstances, and a hardy but lazy and indigent set of men are removed to scenes of activity and comfort.

The ascent of Honistar, near Borrowdale, is detailed with considerable effect: but we must content ourselves with selecting a single circumstance:

‘ Here our guide pointed out to us tracks down the declivity opposite to Honistar, which are made by a man bringing slate from the top of the mountain into the vale below. This hardy and industrious creature, having attained the summit of a mountain hundreds of feet high, fastens together a large quantity of the slate; and placing it behind him, to preserve it from being shattered to pieces by an unprotected descent, slides down the precipice with his burthen pressing him forward; and thus, like Sisyphus, incurs the daily risk of being crushed to death, with the additional horror of a yawning abyss before his eyes.’

The commencing and the concluding paragraphs of this volume are rather too much *elevated*: but the whole may agreeably beguile a few vacant hours.

**ART. V.** *Dissertations, Essays, and Sermons*, by the late Reverend and learned George Bingham, B.D., Rector of Pimperm and Critchill, Dorset; and many Years Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford. To which are prefixed Memoirs of his Life, &c. By his Son Peregrine Bingham, LL.B., late Fellow of New College, Oxford; Rector of Radclive, Bucks, and late Chaplain to His Majesty's Ship Agincourt. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1804.

*A Sequel to, or a Continuation of the Memoirs prefixed to the Works of the late Rev. and learned George Bingham, B.D., or a Defence of the Conduct of his Successor, the present Incumbent of Long-Critchill with More-Critchill annexed, against the unfounded Insinuations conveyed to the Public, through the Channel of these Memoirs. Addressed to the Clergy of the County of Dorset by the Successor.* 8vo. pp. 26. delivered Gratis.

**SOME** allowance may be made for the warmth of filial piety, when a son undertakes to be his father's biographer; and criticism itself, if it cannot fully subscribe to every encomium, must applaud the honourable feelings by which it was dictated. Mr. Peregrine Bingham, in exhibiting the life of his venerable parent, dwells with heart-felt satisfaction on his consummate piety and exemplary christian virtues; on the 'steadiness of his friendship and the warmth of his benevolence; on his patience and industry as a scholar; on the depth of his researches and the soundness of his arguments; and, though the portrait seems to be highly flattering, he assures us that it is not too highly coloured, and that 'such and not less than such' was the author of the tracts before us. His father, indeed, appears to have been a good man, a respectable clergyman, and a profound biblical scholar: but while we applaud his diligence and zeal, we cannot, with his son, uniformly compliment him on the felicity of his strictures, nor on the soundness of his reasoning. On the contrary, we have found reason to differ from him in several respects. Before, however, we undertake to appreciate his merit as a writer, our business will be to notice the few incidents of his life.

The memoir informs us that George Bingham, the sixth son of Richard Bingham, Esq. and Philadelphia, daughter and heiress of John Potinger, Esq. by Philadelphia, daughter of Sir John Ernie, Knight, Chancellor, was born Nov. 7, 1713, at Melcomb Bingham, in the county of Dorset, the residence of that family for many centuries. Patronized by his grandfather Mr. Potinger, who was himself a man of learning, he was sent at twelve years of age to Westminster school; and before he was seventeen, he was elected from that foundation to Trinity College, Cambridge, but entered a Commoner at Christ Church,

Church, Oxford. Esteemed for his learning and urbanity, within four years from his matriculation, he was made a Fellow of All Souls College; in the select society of which, Mr. Bingham formed some valuable friendships. On the death of the Rev. Christopher Pitt, (the translator of Virgil's *Æneid*, &c.) Mr. B. was presented by the late Lord Rivers to the rectory of Pimperm, Dorset; when he resigned his fellowship, and married a lady to whom he had been some time engaged. By this wife, on whom he doated with the tenderest affection, he had one daughter and two sons: but soon after the birth of the last, she was seized with a complaint which precipitated her to the tomb. In his widowed state, he endeavoured to alleviate his affliction by dividing his time between his theological studies and the education of his children; and a new instance of preferment occurring, viz. the rectory of More-Critchill, he availed himself of the opportunity of trying the effect of a change of residence: but, finding his new-chosen habitation unhealthy, he soon returned to the parsonage at Pimperm. In addition to the affliction which he sustained in the death of his wife, his heart was deeply wounded by the loss of his eldest son, John; who, at the age of 17, was drowned as he was bathing in the river Itchin, in a place called *the Pot*, having been suddenly seized with the cramp. As an author, Mr. B. was known by a *Dissertation on the Millenium* published in 1772, and by a *Vindication of the Liturgy* occasioned by Mr. Lindsay's Apology, published in 1774. The latter years of Mr. Bingham's life were occupied between his study and his farm; and in his 85th year, as his son tells us, '*finding the infirmities of old age increase*,' he died on the 11th of October 1800.

Mr. P. Bingham, having performed that duty which he owed to the memory of his deceased father, adverts in the remainder of the introduction to an extraneous circumstance relative to the rectory of More-Critchill, and reflects on the conduct of its present possessor. With this business he should not have encumbered his narrative; at least he ought to have maturely examined it before he had ventured on his mode of relating it.

Mr. Marsh, the present rector of Long-Critchill with More-Critchill annexed, resenting the heavy insinuation directed against him in Mr. Bingham's statement, has published a small pamphlet, '*a Sequel to the above-mentioned Memoirs of the Rev. George Bingham*,' &c. in which he has fully explained the particulars relative to his appointment to and occupation of the Rectory in behalf of a minor; and he has completely, we think, exculpated himself from all blame, by adducing the letter of the Bishop of Bristol to prove that he now holds the living, not from any omission on his part in tendering his resignation  
of

Of it according to his agreement with Mrs. Sturt, but because the Bishop has refused, *for certain reasons*, to accept of the resignation. As the history of this transaction would not be very interesting to our readers, we notice it in the most cursory manner: though justice to Mr. Marsh, who makes a triumphant defence against a cruel attack, would not allow us to pass it in total silence.

We proceed to the Tracts and Essays of Mr. Bingham, the first of which includes a series of Dissertations on the Revelation, intitled *Dissertationes Apocalyptice*, and which occupy the remainder of the first Volume. On this subject, Mr. B. has bestowed much labour and study; and they who are fond of exercising their genius, in daring attempts to solve whatever is peculiarly mysterious and intricate, will have some pleasure in these inquiries: but we must honestly confess that the author has employed a mass of learning without establishing one positive fact, or in any instance clearing our apocalyptic sight. To us, the hieroglyphics of St. John still remain as inexplicable as those on Egyptian obelisks. Mr. B. perhaps, with some reason, objects to those interpretations which reflect on the Church of Rome, as the Antichrist and the Great Whore of the Revelation; since 'he cannot help acknowledging her to be a part, though a corrupted part of the Christian Church.' He is inclined to refer the prophecies in relation to Antichrist to the impostor Mahomet; and his opinion, on this point, was made known to the public in a dissertation which he published in 1772 on the Millennium, entitled *τα Χίλια Έτη*, and of which we gave an account in M. R. Vol. xlvii. p. 329. This tract is incorporated with the present volumes, but it makes only a small part of them. Mr. B. examines the genuineness of the Apocalypse, including its testimonies, style, and doctrines. If the great work of Lardner had been in his possession, he would probably have more fully, discussed the first point; he persuades himself, however, that the genuineness of the Apocalypse might be ascertained by comparing its style with that of St. John's Gospel. He exultingly adduces a few instances in which similar, or nearly similar, expressions occur in both places: but the agreement is so trifling, when compared with the dissonance, that, in our opinion, it proves the reverse of what Mr. B. intends. Let us see how the matter stands. Does St. John, in any of the writings universally acknowledged to be his, use the expressions "A and Ω; who was and is and who is to come?" Does he speak of "*seven spirits of God*?" Does he ever use *κάρωρα* for fruit\*, or *σώματα* for men? It is curious, however,

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\* St. John's word is *κάρπος*. See Gospel, chap. xv.

to remark that, in the apocryphal book of Tobit, Raphael speaks of himself as one of the seven angels of God, *ἓξ τῶν ἑπτά ἁγίων ἀγγέλων* \*; and we have the word *δοῦλοι* employed to signify *slaves*, exactly in the sense in which the term is used in Rev. xviii. 13. It is also worthy of observation that not only are *seven spirits* nowhere represented, excepting in the Apocalypse, as standing round the throne of God, but these *seven spirits* are inserted in a solemn benediction, before Jesus Christ; though afterward our Saviour, in the character of the Lamb, is said to have seven eyes, "which are those seven spirits." Indeed, the most careless reader must be struck with the peculiar phraseology as well as imagery of this wonderful book; which must have been written by a person who had a superstitious reverence for the number 7, whose mind was impressed with all the pageantry of the Jewish ritual, and whose personifications and representations are of a kind unparalleled in any other part of the N. T. We have "Death sitting on a pale horse, and Hell (a person also) following;"—"Angels standing on the four corners of the earth, and holding the winds that they blow not" (*Ipsam compedibus qui vinxerit Finis-regnum*);—"A dragon, drawing with his tail the third part of Heaven;"—"Michael and the dragon fighting, and making war in heaven;"—"A woman standing in the Sun and calling to the fowls of the air," as if the atmosphere extended from the surface of the earth to the sun;—Incense is said to come up with the prayers of the saints;—and Hell is painted as smoking like a large caldron, with fire and brimstone. The whole apparatus is formed on the Jewish plan: in Heaven we see a golden altar with four horns standing before God; the New Jerusalem descends for the twelve tribes of Israel, which are distinctly named; and there is a *crystalline sea*, said to correspond with the molten sea of Solomon.

Supposing, however, this singular book to be a genuine work of St. John, written in the isle of Patmos towards the conclusion of the reign of Domitian, what is its purport, and what events does it prefigure? So much of it as respects the seven churches of the Lesser Asia is easily to be understood: but the subsequent chapters are mysterious; and, as it is confessed by Mr. B., 'in many places unintelligible.' We consider, with this author, the Apocalyptic visions to be in series, and represented as occurring at the same time: but what idea is designed to be conveyed by a scrole composed of separate leaves, and each leaf sealed with a distinct seal; what is the purport of the hieroglyphical delineations on these leaves; what

\* Tobit xii. 15.

is meant by the *επτα σαλπγγες*; by the *Βιβλαριον* which St. John is ordered to eat, and which was sweet in his mouth and in his belly was bitter; what by *επτα φιλαι*, by *βαβυλων*, and by *Ιερουσαλημ καινη*;—who are to be understood by Gog and Magog, by *οι δυο μαρτυρες*, by the *Γυνη περιβεβλημενη τον υλιον*, by *Θυριον*, whose number is 666, by a star which is called *Wormwood*, and by a city which measures 12,000 furlongs, and is as *high* as it is long and broad;—what was meant, we say, by these expressions, it now seems impossible to ascertain with the least degree of certainty, or even of probability. The contents of this book are very striking, and calculated to excite curiosity: but every attempt to gratify it has proved, and we, think, without an express revelation, must continue to prove, abortive.

Mr. Bingham is justified by the whole tenor of the visions, in considering the East to be more particularly the Apocalyptic scene of action; though he cannot be allowed to have any solid ground for supposing Mahomet, any more than the Pope, to be designated by the title of Antichrist. His hypothesis of *days* signifying *years* is a mere assumption. When in Rev. xi. 9. it is said that dead bodies were kept unburied three days and a half, we cannot understand three years and a half. Besides, if *days*, in this book, uniformly denote *years*, the 1000 years in which Satan, the old Serpent, is to be bound, must mean  $365 \times 1000 = 365,000$  years. The events, previously to these thousand years, are promised to occur at a period at no great distance from the prophecy. In the beginning, the writer tells the churches *α δε γενεσθαι εν ταχαι*; towards the end, *ο γαρ καιρος εγγυς*; and even at the very conclusion, our Saviour says *ετι ερχομαι ταχυ*. With these intimations, it is most rational to refer the *man of sin* and the *last days* to the period of the destruction of the Jewish polity; and the promise of a New Jerusalem might be designed to comfort the Jews with the hope that a more glorious Jerusalem would arise out of the ruins, eclipse the former in splendor, and be the seat of a most opulent empire.

It is no more than *gratis dictum* when we are told that *ιππος λευκος* is 'Trajan;' *ιππος πυρρος* 'Adrian;' *ιππος μελας* 'Antoninus Pius;' *Θυσιαστηριον* 'the persecutions preceding the reign of Dioclesian;' and *Σεισμος* 'the destruction of the empire of Idolatry;'—that the *Χαλαζα, ορες, καιομενον* and *ασηνθος*, (the results of the sounding of the first three trumpets) are 'the irruptions of the Goths;' and that the *σκοτος* which followed the sounding of the fourth, by which "one-third of the sun and of the moon and of the stars was smitten," means 'the subsequent obscurity and defection of the church in morals, discipline, and worship.' Mr. B. may adduce these instances to

prove that, in the Apocalypse, 'great and important truths are concealed under striking and apposite representations:' but we want discernment to discover the appositeness of these hieroglyphical pictures to the objects said to be represented by them. We cannot be of the opinion of those who think that St. Peter alluded to the Revelation by his "*more sure word of prophecy.*"

That we may give our readers a specimen of Mr. B.'s mode of commenting on this confessedly obscure book, we shall extract his illustration of the 2d part of the *Βιβλίον*, or Little Book, containing a description of what is termed a great wonder in heaven, viz. "a woman clothed with the sun," &c. (chap. xii. 1.)

'We have here a representation of Christianity by her proper symbols, from her first appearance, throughout her present militant state. Her struggles prior to her obtaining a settlement are represented by her labour-pains, and her more settled state by her bringing forth a man child: and the attempts of the Devil, under each period, to prevent the increase of Christianity, by the Dragon watching her in her labour, and ready to destroy the child, as soon as she should be delivered. But in the end his attempt was frustrated; for the woman was secured by flight, and her child was taken up to the throne of God: or in other words, the church continued, though in a state of distress and persecution, and its members were safe under the divine protection. We find these images before introduced in the prophesy of Isaiah; but with this difference, *they* the sudden increase of Christianity is prefigured by an easy birth. "Before she travailed, she brought forth, before her pain came she was delivered of a man child." Isaiah, lxi. 7, 8. And again, "As soon as Zion travailed, she brought forth her children:" but here, ere she brought forth her man child, she cried, *travailing in birth*, and *pained to be delivered*: which expressed those oppositions and difficulties, which the church endured under her ten persecutions. She is described as clothed with the sun, having the moon under her feet, and upon her head a crown of twelve stars. The twelve stars so visibly allude to the doctrine of the twelve apostles, with which the church is irradiated, that it is reasonable to interpret the sun as meaning the sun of righteousness, the head of the church, Jesus Christ, her author and founder. But concerning the moon we are not so well agreed, whether we should understand this of the Jewish ceremonies, or, it may be, of all varying sublunary things, with Medea; or with Daubuz, of the Holy Ghost. Yet it may perhaps be worth our observation to remember, that this woman, thus glorious in her apparel, is stationed in heaven; and the moon in respect of her situation is placed under her feet, as in the Apotheosis of Virgil's Eclogue:

"Sub pedibusque videt nubes et sidera Daphnis."

And all this emblematically represents her conspicuous exalted state, and shews her to be, what our Saviour called his disciples in one place (Matt. v. 14.) and terms himself in another, (John viii. 12.) *το φῶς τῆ κοίτης*: and as the greater light rules the day, and the lesser governs

governs the night, (Gen. i. 16. Ps. cxxxvi. 9.) we are to understand that no part of the earth at any season is to be entirely deprived of her light.'

What could induce any person to interpret the moon to signify the Holy Spirit, we are at a loss to conjecture.

Mr. B. undertakes to shew that by *Babylon* is meant, not Rome, but Constantinople; (which as well as Rome is erected on seven hills;) and that the *Man of Sin* does not signify an individual, but the Jews at the destruction of Jerusalem, whose conduct answered the two characters by which the Man of Sin was to be discriminated. We shall not, however, discuss the soundness of this conjecture, but shall dismiss Mr. B.'s *Dissertationes Apocalyptice* with lamenting that he should have laboured to so little purpose. We trust that future commentators, before they put on their Apocalyptic spectacles, will consider the impenetrable darkness in which this book has been always enveloped; and will resolve to blot no more paper with Dissertations, until some *data* be obtained, and some *solid principles* of interpretation are established.

The first tract in the second volume is Mr. Bingham's Vindication of the doctrine and liturgy of the Church of England, in answer to Mr. Lindsay's Apology, published in 1774, and our opinion of which was given in M. R. Vol. li. p. 296.

Παυλος εν Αθηναις, or *Paul at Athens*, is the subject of the next Essay, which was written during the author's confinement at Bath, 1782, under a severe paralytic stroke. Here Mr. B. explains the character of the Athenians, and the Apostle's admirable address in defending himself before the Areopagus; neither of which appears in our version of Acts xvii :

'To say that "all the Athenians, and strangers which were there, spent their time in nothing else but either to tell or to hear some new thing," is to make them arrant gossips, a weak idle useless people. And to begin telling his judges, they were "too superstitious," does not seem reconcilable to that address, which runs through his whole Apology.

'Were any historian to say that in the reign of Charles the Second a society was incorporated which occasionally holds its meetings even to this day; and when they get together they do nothing else but spend their time in telling or hearing some new thing; it would impress on the reader's mind a very humiliating idea of the Royal Society. But were it said, that some of the first and most learned men of the kingdom, who seeing the utility of experimental philosophy, first privately among themselves, and afterwards more publicly proceeded in making several useful discoveries, after the Restoration obtained the king's charter of incorporation, and to this day support the character of the Royal Society; it would be an imperfect, but much more candid, representation of that respectable body of learned

men. Yet, if you cast your eye over their Transactions, and observe that they admit foreigners amongst them, you will be apt to say Πᾶσις, καὶ οἱ ἐπιδημιῶντες ἔστω, εἰς αὐτὴν ἕλθοντες ἐκ πανταχοῦ καὶ ἀκούοντες κηρύξεσθαι. I take there to be something similar in the case before us. Athens was the place whither the youth resorted for education; and the philosophers for the instruction of others. It was the seat of science; and philosophy in all its branches was cultivated and improved. Well therefore might it be said that not only the citizens of Athens, but οἱ ἐπιδημιῶντες ἔστω, they who resorted thither, employed a principal part of their time (or, as Scapula renders it, “in nullâ re aliâ otium suum consumebant”) in hearing and reporting things worthy of their attention.<sup>2</sup>

Though Paul's spirit was moved at seeing this city, so celebrated for science and learning, given up to idolatry, we think with Mr. B. that he was too expert an orator to begin his speech by bluntly telling them that they were “too superstitious:” the phrase δεισιδαιμονεστερος was not used by him in an ill sense, but was chosen as an apparent compliment to the Athenians for their religious reverence of the gods; while the proof which he adduces of this reverence affords him an opportunity of attacking idolatry, by revealing to them the knowledge of the only true God and of his Son Jesus Christ. In this view, there cannot be a more excellent piece of oratory. The quotations which the Apostle introduces were also well-timed; since they convinced his audience, while he preached Jesus and the Resurrection, that he was not ignorant of Grecian literature.

The observation made on the Apostle, that he seemed to be “a setter-forth of strange gods, because he preached Jesus and the Resurrection,” has induced some to believe that the Athenians took Ἀναστάσις for the name of a God: but they must have given little attention to his doctrine, if they fell into this error. Though they employed the plural καὶ τῶν δαιμονίων, they might only mean to accuse him of adding *one* to the number; and the mocking of some, when they heard of “the resurrection of the dead,” does not countenance the supposition that the Apostle's Ἀναστάσις was mistaken for a Deity. Idle rumour, however, might have occasioned such a misapprehension.

In the Essay on *the Song of Solomon*, Mr. B. espouses the notion that it is a mystical, allegorical pastoral. From the occurrence of similar amatory expressions in the Ἑλλήνις Ἐπιθαλαμῖος, he supposes that the Grecian poets borrowed from it; not considering that Love, being the same in all nations, must inspire a uniformity of sentiment. We admit with Mr. B. that the whole is properly שִׁיר יִרְדָּת (erroneously printed יִרְדָּת שִׁיר) *a song of Love*; and that we may say throughout the poem, as in the *Cestus of Venus*, ll. 2.

Ενθ' ἐνὶ μὲν φιλοτῆς, ἐν δ' ἱμῆρος, ἐν δ' οὐραϊσὺς :

but, after such a representation, we are not prepared for Mr. B.'s comments and spiritual applications. He, with others, considers this poem as divided into seven distinct parts, and thinks that it was composed in honour of Solomon's marriage with Pharaoh's daughter. The first of these opinions is very lamely supported; and the latter, in our judgment, is fully proved to be erroneous by Mr. Good, in his late publication on the Song of Solomon \*.

The remainder of these volumes consists of four Sermons. In the first, on the wisdom of God displayed in the series of divine dispensations, the preacher informs us that 'Christ did not go and preach to the spirits in prison in his own person, but in the person of Noah;' in the 2d, he comments on the doctrine of the General Judgment; in the 3d, he strenuously maintains the tenet of Everlasting Punishment, undertaking to answer all objections to it: but he performs his task so very unsatisfactorily, that he concludes with offering 'it as his firm belief that God will not punish any one more than is consistent with infinite wisdom and infinite mercy.' In the last discourse, we are assured that there is 'a relation between water and life,' and then we are awkwardly exhorted to charity.

On the whole, we have perused Mr. Bingham's works with more surprize than satisfaction. He displays much learning, but in general it is learning without light. As a commentator on Scripture, he appears to want a clear and discriminating mind; and in order to serve his hypothesis, he often takes things for granted which require to be proved. Though we question not his attainments as a biblical scholar, we cannot suffer his pedantry in making references to the books of the O. T. by their Hebrew titles, to pass without notice: Genesis is quoted as the בְּרֵאשִׁית, of Moses; we are requested to compare Apoc. iii. 20. with שִׁיר הַשִּׁירִים chap. v. 2. (meaning Solomon's Song) and דְּבַרֵּי הַיָּמִים xxii. 10. with the parallel place ב. מַלְכִּים xi. 1. (meaning 2 Chron. xxii. 10. with 2 Kings xi. 1.) In many places, the Hebrew citations are incorrect; for which, perhaps, the Editor, and not the Author, is accountable.

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\* See Rev. Vol. xlvii. N.S. p. 300.

ART. VI. *A Treatise on Febrile Diseases*, including Intermittent, Remitting, and Continued Fevers; Eruptive Fevers; Inflammations; Hemorrhages; and the Profluvia; in which an Attempt is made to present, at one View, whatever, in the present State of Medicine, it is requisite for the Physician to know respecting the Symptoms, Causes, and Cure of those Diseases; with Experimental Essays, on certain Febrile Symptoms, on the Nature of Inflammation, and on the Manner in which Opium and Tobacco act on the Living Animal Body. By A. Philips Wilson, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, &c. Vol. IV. 8vo. pp. 740. 9s. Boards. Printed at Winchester. London. Cadell and Davies.

WE announced some time ago the commencement of Dr. Wilson's undertaking\*; the 2d and 3d Volumes we were not able to procure: but we now present our readers with an account of the 4th, by which the work is concluded. Having already gone through the diseases classed by Dr. Cullen under the heads of *Pyrexia* and *Exanthemata*, and a part of the *Pblegmasia*, the author now proceeds with the remainder of this class, beginning with the consideration of the *cynanche trachealis*. He divides the disease into two varieties, 'that which we sometimes meet with in adults, and that which attacks children from the time they are weaned until about 12 years of age:' but, as it appears that the age of the patient is the only circumstance by which these varieties are to be distinguished, we must regard this division as altogether unnecessary and improper. The symptoms of croup at its commencement are well delineated, and its fatal and rapid progress is traced with accuracy and precision. A disease has been described under the title of the acute asthma, which in some of its prominent features strongly resembles the *cynanche trachealis*, but which has been considered by others as an entirely different disease. The question is of some practical importance; and those writers, who have conceived that the diseases are not identical, have taken much pains to point out a sufficiently accurate diagnosis between them. After all, however, the point remains undecided; Michaelis and Rush regard the diseases as different, and Dr. Wilson appears to incline to their opinion; while Cullen, notwithstanding his accuracy of observation, was not able to distinguish them from each other. Dr. W. seems to suppose that the membrane, which in true croup is found lining the inside of the trachea, does not exist in the acute asthma: but at the same time he remarks that the presence of this membrane is not essentially connected with the characteristic symptoms of the disease, even when

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\* See Rev. Vol. xxxi. N. S. p. 41.

existing in their most exquisite form. The peculiar ringing sound of the voice has certainly taken place when the membrane did not exist; and there has been undoubted proof of the existence of the membrane, where this peculiarity in the voice could not be discerned.

The appearances which this membrane presents on dissection have been minutely observed, with the view of ascertaining its cause and nature, but hitherto without much success.

The preternatural membrane (says Dr. W.) presents different appearances in different cases. Sometimes, Michaelis observes, it is as thin as paper, in other cases so thick that it almost fills up the whole cavity of the trachea. It is often of different thickness in different parts, and the thickest part is sometimes the uppermost and sometimes the reverse. In some cases it is soft and pulpy, in other cases so firm and tough that it will bear maceration in water for several days; but however tough it is in the trachea, it becomes more tender in the bronchiæ, and is always soft before its termination. In some cases it is quite white, in others marked with red spots, and it is now and then uniformly of a dark colour, and sometimes even black. Some have thought this membrane possessed a vascular, others, a fibrous structure; the former opinion appears erroneous, and the latter is not confirmed by general observation.

Dr. Home supposed that the seat of the disease was in the mucous glands of the trachea, which were excited to secrete an unusually large quantity of fluid; and that, the thinner parts being evaporated, the remainder was converted into the form of a solid membrane. Dr. Rush considers the disease as spasmodic, and regards the membrane as an adventitious circumstance only. Others again imagine the membrane to consist of coagulable lymph, similar to the substance of polypi, and that its peculiar form is determined by its situation. Lastly, the opinion of Cullen is given, who supposes that it is an inflammation of the larynx, combined with a spasm of the glottis: 'but to this opinion,' as the present author remarks, 'by far the most probable, some objections might still be found.'

In Dr. Wilson's account of the treatment of the disease, we meet with a judicious selection from the experience of others: but we do not observe much original information. With respect to general bleeding, it is not easy to lay down any directions of universal application; the judgment of the practitioner must be exercised on each particular case, and he must be guided by the stage of the complaint and the constitution of the patient. There is less doubt respecting the use of emetics, though they are not free from opponents; and local bleeding has been recommended almost without exception. The use of antispasmodics is still undecided; they have had powerful advocates, but by others they have been deemed of little service.

This

This dissonance of opinion may depend either on the different nature of the various forms of the disease, or on an essential distinction in the diseases which have been classed under the same name. We think that the author might, with propriety, have enlarged on the use of Calomel in this disease; and we were disappointed at not finding any notice of Senna, a medicine which has been so strongly recommended by some of the American physicians.

Dr. W. next treats successively of *Pneumonia*, *Peripneumonia notha*, *Gastitis*, *Enteritis*, and *Hepatitis*. As our limits would not permit us to enter into a minute examination of all the contents of this volume, we shall pass over these diseases, and dwell rather more particularly on the next two chapters, which relate to rheumatism and gout.

The remarks on Rheumatism are almost exclusively confined to the acute species; since this alone is a febrile disease, and therefore properly forming a part of Dr. Wilson's work. The necessity of dividing from each other two diseases that are so intimately connected, as the acute and chronic rheumatism, induces the author to offer some remarks on nosology in general.

‘It would seem, (he says,) that in forming a system of nosology, our study should be to select the symptoms which characterise each disease in its perfect form, and arrange those together whose symptoms are most similar, without attending to the various gradations by which diseases run into each other. Is it our aim, in forming such a system, to assist the learner in enabling him to distinguish diseases? This is the simplest way; after he is acquainted with such a system, a single perusal of a system of practice will teach him the connection which diseases have with each other; this is not the purpose of nosology. Is it our aim in forming such a system, to assist the practitioner? This is the way in which we shall be most successful. I have frequently had occasion to observe that where the symptoms are similar, the modes of treatment generally are so likewise. Even according to this plan, indeed, we shall often class together very different diseases, because in their most striking features they agree. Synocha and typhus are classed together, notwithstanding they are very dissimilar in their mode of treatment. But by classing diseases merely according to their symptoms, we shall, I believe, class together a greater number of diseases whose treatment is similar, than by pursuing any other method.’

The question is perhaps scarcely worth discussing:—though an attention to nosology may in some measure assist the student in the acquisition of medical knowledge, we apprehend that it can seldom be applied to the practice of the experienced physician.

The

The symptoms and progress of this tedious and painful complaint seem to be accurately related, and the difficulty is pointed out under which we sometimes labour with respect to its diagnosis. The disease with which it is the most liable to be confounded is the gout; it appears indeed that the antients had no idea of any essential difference between them; and even in the present day, when their nature is on the whole so well understood, we are often much perplexed in individual cases to distinguish them. As it is a discussion of great practical moment, Dr. Wilson might have entered into it more fully, instead of merely referring us to the account of the symptoms of each disease. The increase of pain on motion, which he states as 'the diagnostic of rheumatism the most extensively applicable,' is certainly a very prominent symptom in gout.

In speaking of the treatment of acute rheumatism, the attention is especially directed to the employment of the different evacuations; and we are presented with an account of the various, and often contradictory opinions, that have been entertained on this subject. Since the author's object seems to be rather to bring forwards the sentiments of others than to decide between them, we are still left in much uncertainty: we may, however, remark that the *systematic writers* have been the most fond of the lancet; a circumstance which would lead us to suspect that they have been more guided by the place which rheumatism occupied in the nosology, than by the effect of the remedies applied to it. As we have become gradually emancipated from the tyranny of system, we are in the same ratio grown more cautious of that instrument. Sydenham, with that candor which is the attendant on real genius, confesses that in his early practice he was too liberal in its use. Among the remedies, respecting which the minds of practitioners may be considered as in a state of uncertainty, is the Peruvian bark. Dr. W. refers to it in a way which conveys to us the idea that he has never actually witnessed its effects: but the work of Dr. Haygarth, which has appeared since the performance now before us, will no doubt establish its character as a remedy in rheumatism. We are inclined to make the same remark with respect to opium and mercury; to neither of which medicines Dr. Wilson seems to have paid that attention which, we conceive, they deserve. We expected also to have met with some observations on the application of external cold, and the employment of digitalis.

We next enter on the consideration of Gout; on which complaint perhaps more has been written than on any other; and, as this author observes, 'on none, perhaps, has so much been said

to so little purpose.' After having quoted Cullen's definition, he details the symptoms attending a paroxysm of what has been called the regular gout; and the description, we are informed, is principally taken from Sydenham, which is found to be so full and accurate, that 'it is impossible to make any considerable additions to it.' On this part of the work, it is unnecessary for us to dwell: but it is somewhat remarkable that this illustrious author, who has furnished us with so admirable a picture of the disease in its most complete state, has not admitted the existence of the other varieties. Though evidently depending on the same morbid condition of the body, their appearance and progress are so dissimilar, and they are of such frequent occurrence, that succeeding writers have been led to notice their symptoms with much attention. Dr. Cullen, as is well known, subdivided the irregular gout into three varieties, but, we incline to think, unnecessarily.

Dr. W. remarks that 'to enter fully on a detail of all the symptoms which appear in what is called atonic gout, would be to give those of a large proportion of the complaints to which we are subject;' and he then enumerates its most striking features. It has been questioned whether this form of the disease can ever make its appearance, except in those who have previously suffered from an attack of the regular gout: but this must usually be ascertained, rather by attending to the general history of the patient, than from the present symptoms only; though we think that there can be no doubt of the reality of the occurrence. The atonic gout is especially apt to affect the different abdominal viscera; and among these, its most frequent attacks are made on the stomach. These complaints are often more painful, and of longer continuance, than in the regular form of the disease; and they assume so great a variety of appearances, that they perplex and baffle the most experienced practitioner. The affections of the thorax are perhaps not less distressing, but are happily less frequent; they sometimes assume the appearance of asthma, sometimes of *peripneumonia notba*; a violent palpitation is in some instances the prevailing symptom; and in others, a troublesome cough. To conclude the list of ailments which are referred to the atonic gout, we occasionally observe it attacking the nervous system, producing head ache, vertigo, and apoplexy. Since the symptoms of these various diseases, when considered as induced by a gouty constitution, are at least very nearly similar to the same diseases when occurring from accidental causes, it becomes a matter of no small difficulty to determine in what cases we are to denominate them idiopathic, and when merely symptomatic of gout. We are not acquainted

acquainted with any diagnosis that can assist us in this inquiry, except such as may be derived from attending to the history of the patient's constitution, and his previous complaints.

As there is perhaps no disease which subjects mankind to more pain and distress than the gout, it is lamentable that there are few which we have it less in our power to remove by the aid of medicine. On this account, it has at all times been a grand object to ascertain the remote causes of the disease, in order that we may at least avoid an evil which we are not able to cure. It happens, however, unhappily, that a very frequent remote cause of gout is one which, from its very nature is irremediable, *i. e.* an hereditary disposition. 'There are few complaints (says Dr. W.) in which an hereditary predisposition is more evident than in gout, and if this complaint appears before the middle of life, it is generally in those whose parents have laboured under it.' This position has indeed been controverted: but what position in the whole science has not occasionally met with its opponents? Difficult, however, as is this investigation, we have one fact on the subject which stands on the irrefragable basis of the most ample experience, viz. that gout never attacks the poor, who are scantily fed; yet the conclusion to be drawn from this fact is not so obvious as may at first view appear to be the case. It will no doubt immediately occur to every one, that the gout is derived from intemperance and indolence, but it must be admitted that the poor are perhaps fully as liberal in the use of intoxicating liquors as the rich; and there are some occupations, in which the lower classes are engaged, that occasion little exercise either to the mind or the body. There is an important difference between the quality of the food employed by the different ranks of society; yet it seems scarcely to accord with experience to ascribe the production of the disease to this circumstance. As in this country the use of wine is principally confined to the wealthy, it has been imagined by some that gout is produced by the habitual employment of wine, and not by the use of malt liquors or distilled spirits: but in contradiction to this opinion, it must be remarked that in those countries in which wine is employed as the common drink of the labouring poor, gout is equally unknown among them.—If we find it difficult to assign a probable remote cause for the gout, we shall perceive ourselves plunged into still more inextricable obscurity, when we attempt to discover its proximate cause. Yet, as it generally happens in the science of medicine, in proportion to the intricacy of the subject, have hypotheses been multiplied, and advanced with dogmatical confidence. Over these Dr. Wilson judiciously passes in a very brief manner, and proceeds

ceeds to consider the treatment of the disease, first, as it appears in its regular form.

Viewing gout as a constitutional affection, the author properly observes that the removal of the inflammation is not the principal aim of the practitioner. 'The objects we have chiefly in view are so to remove the paroxysm that the succeeding interval may be as long as possible, and that any tendency to atonic gout may be obviated, the danger in gout proceeding neither from the local affection nor the general excitement, but from the paroxysm becoming frequent and irregular.' Respecting the use of evacuations during the gouty paroxysm, practitioners are nearly agreed; they may occasionally be employed with advantage, when any particular circumstance calls for their use: but they are not remedies that can be regarded as of indiscriminate application, nor as being possessed of any specific virtues. Concerning the effects of opium, much difference of opinion exists; and probably in this, as in similar cases, the truth may be in the medium. We are not disposed to place great reliance on any of the local applications that have from time to time acquired a degree of reputation, many of which are insignificant, and some dangerous; and in this last class, we do not hesitate to rank external cold. Dr. W. informs us that he had not seen Dr. Kinglake's work when he composed his remarks on gout; and consequently little notice is taken of the practice which has lately been recommended by that writer. We have perused Dr. Kinglake's performance with considerable attention; and, as we shall speedily give our sentiments concerning it, we shall not here enter on the discussion.

In the atonic gout, Dr. Wilson points out two indications of cure; to remove the symptoms of debility, and to restore the regular fits. 'It is to be observed, (he adds) that if we succeed in either of these indications, the other for the most part is answered at the same time.' Unfortunately, the means of fulfilling these indications are not much within our power; and all that we can effect is to be accomplished rather by a strict and uniform attention to regimen than by the use of any medicines. The author reviews the different remedies which have been recommended, and manifests considerable judgment in appreciating the degree of benefit which we may respectively hope to derive from them.— On the whole, we consider the chapter on gout as containing a valuable summary of the information which we at present possess on this subject; and if it does not promise any certain or immediate relief, we fear that this is to be ascribed, not to any want of skill or knowledge in the author, but to the deficiencies of his art.

The

The volume concludes with some remarks on hæmorrhages; an ample and judicious account of *phthisis pulmonalis* and of dysentery; and an appendix containing 'an experimental essay on the manner in which opium and tobacco act on the living body,' which had been previously published in the year 1795.

Our readers will perceive that we have a favourable opinion of Dr. Wilson's labours: which, though they do not exhibit any prominent marks of genius, evince his judgment in the selection and arrangement of his materials. His treatise must be regarded as principally valuable to the student, but it may occasionally be consulted with advantage by the experienced practitioner.

ART. VII. *Medical Sketches of the Expedition to Egypt, from India.*

By James M'Gregor, A.M. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, of London; Surgeon to the Royal Regiment of Horse Guards; and lately Superintending Surgeon to the Indian Army in Egypt. 8vo. pp. 260. 7s. Boards. Murray.

THESE sketches were originally composed in consequence of orders from the Court of Directors to the Government of India; and, from the character of the author, and the sources of information which he possessed, we may confidently affirm that the task could not have fallen into better hands. We are informed that, 'during an uncommonly long voyage, in a march over extensive deserts, and in a country and climate, described as the most inimical to the human race, the Indian army enjoyed a considerable degree of health, and suffered but a small mortality.' This extraordinary exemption from sickness appears to be justly attributable to the exertions both of the military and the medical officers; and particularly to the attention which was paid to the comforts of the soldiers by the commander in chief, General Baird.

Mr. M'Gregor divides his work into three parts; 'the first gives the medical history, or rather the journal, of the expedition: in the second, after attempting to assign the causes of the diseases which prevailed, some modes of prevention are offered: and in the third there is some account of the diseases.'

The army left India in the beginning of the year 1801, and arrived at Kossier, on the Red Sea, in May; and in June they commenced their march across the deserts. During this tedious expedition, they retained an unusually good state of health, although their progress was attended by many unfavourable circumstances. The heat was intense; for we learn that on the 29th June, at Le Gita, in the author's tent, 'at

three P. M. the mercury stood at  $114^{\circ}$ . In the soldiers' tents it could not have been less than  $118^{\circ}$ . A burning wind also prevailed, which perpetually produced clouds of dust that penetrated into the stomach and lungs. During July, the army still remained in a very healthy state, encamped on the banks of the Nile, which now began to exhibit signs of its annual overflow. They afterward moved about 400 miles down the Nile, and were stationed at Rhoda, a small island formed by the river, on which the Nilometer is placed. Soon after their arrival at this spot, a fever broke out among them, and in three weeks the number of the sick was more than a thousand.

In September, the army removed to Rosetta; and on the 14th of the month, a case of plague was discovered. Every precaution for preventing the spread of the disease was immediately put in practice; yet other cases occurred, the hospital itself appeared to be infected, and it was found that the disease was prevailing among the inhabitants of the town. Ophthalmia now also manifested itself very frequently; and in the beginning of November the total number of sick in the army amounted to 1350, or more than one fourth part of its whole strength.

In December, they removed to Alexandria, a situation much more favourable to health than Rosetta; yet here cases of plague continued to arise, and in January the disease was more frequent and fatal. After having become less severe during the months of February and March, in April the sphere of infection again grew more extensive; some of the medical attendants were themselves seized with the disease, and four of them died: but in the following month its violence again declined, the army was more healthy, and crossed the deserts in order to return to India. The embarkation took place in June; and at this time, says the author, 'never, perhaps, was there an army embarked for any service more healthy than the Indian army was when it re-embarked on its return from Egypt.'

We now enter on the second division of the work, in which Mr. McGregor assigns the cause of the diseases, and details the mode of prevention. The troops who were sent on this expedition were composed of nearly equal numbers of Europeans and Indians: but the Europeans had been for some time either at the Cape of Good Hope or in India, and were therefore well prepared for the effects of heat. The author conceives that we are to attribute the diseases which prevail in Egypt, to some peculiarity in the climate and soil of this country. The exhalations proceeding in Lower Egypt from the lands which are left covered with mud, after the inundations of the Nile, influenced

fluenced by a warm sun, added to the total want of attention to cleanliness, must be considered as fully adequate to produce not only intermittent fevers, but even those which are attended with what are usually called putrid symptoms. The plague, however, the writer regards as an imported disease, and as propagated by contagion alone; yet it is evident that it must be diffused with more facility, when it occurs in a situation favourable for the increase of its violence.

In general, the mortality was observed to be more considerable among the Europeans than among the natives of India; and, although this may in some measure be attributed to an original difference of constitution, yet the author thinks that a part of it must be ascribed to the intemperance of the Europeans in eating and drinking; indeed, he notices one instance in which the effects were immediately perceptible. Mere heat appears to be less unfavourable to the human frame than it might at first view be supposed; for at the period of the greatest heat, and when the men were exposed to the most severe duty, they enjoyed the best health.

The third part of the work commences with some remarks on the plague. Mr. McGregor affords an ample testimony to the value of Dr. Russel's publication on this subject: confessing that, since his time, little addition has been made to our knowledge of the phenomena of the disease, and but little improvement in the method of treating it. He observes, however, that 'the proper and well-timed use of mercury, and, perhaps still more, the application of the newly-discovered remedies analogous in their effects to the calces of that mineral, hold out a prospect of success the most encouraging.' Dreadful as are the effects of this disease, we are induced to hope that much may be done in the way of prevention. The present author appears to entertain no doubt respecting its contagious nature; and he seems to think that, by the strictest attention in avoiding every source of infection, and particularly by adopting the utmost cleanliness and using the nitrous fumigations, its progress may be arrested:—he imagines that there is no danger but from actual contact.

It is observed that the plague assumes very different appearances, according to the countries and the seasons in which it is found; it has sometimes the symptoms of typhus, at others those of an intermittent; and the author was forcibly struck with the resemblance which it bore, in some instances, to the West Indian yellow fever. In order to convey a clear idea of the nature of the disease, he details the cases of seven of the medical gentlemen who were attacked by it, of whom only three recovered. The first case is that of Dr. Whyte; who, conceiv-

ing that the disease was not contagious, inoculated himself with matter taken from a bubo; on the third day he became indisposed, and, on the sixth, 'fell a victim to his own temerity.' Mr. M'Gregor then enumerates the different symptoms of the plague as they occurred to his observation, and offers some remarks on each of them.—It may appear somewhat difficult to form an exact idea of what he means by the plague; since he informs us that fever is not always present, and that in many instances there are no glandular swellings. In such cases, we must suppose that he determined the nature of the disease rather from concomitant circumstances attending its production, than from its actual symptoms.—The symptoms are enumerated in the order of their frequency, and are as follow: fever, tremors of the limbs, affection of the head, glandular swellings, affections of the abdomen, petechiæ, peculiarity of countenance, state of the pulse, of the tongue, affection of the lungs, and dry skin. The process of the disease was frequently very rapid, and its prognosis always doubtful.

Mr. M'Gregor lays down three indications of cure; 1st, to clear the *prima via*, which is best effected by calomel; 2dly, to produce ptyalism and perspiration; and, 3dly, to obviate debility. Mercury is the remedy on which he places his principal reliance: but he is disposed to think favourably of the nitric acid, though, according to his own statement, it must be rather from theory than from actual experience of its effects. The more quickly a salivation could be excited, the more favourable was the termination. Bleeding, and the employment of stimulants, he decidedly condemns.—He has great confidence in the preventative effects of the nitrous fumigation.

Though much less dangerous, yet scarcely less troublesome was the ophthalmia. The author is inclined to regard it as contagious, and, we think, with reason; he believes that it may be prevented by frequently washing the eyes with cold water during the period of its prevalence.

After these observations on what may be considered as the two endemic diseases of Egypt, Mr. M'Gregor attends to the other complaints to which the army was subjected during the expedition. Of these remarks, the most important and original are those which relate to dysentery:—not only the most frequent but the most fatal disease which the army experienced. After having noticed the character which this complaint assumes in different parts of the world, he concludes that it ought to be divided into two species, one of which he calls the tropical dysentery, the other the dysentery of Europe; the former having its origin in the biliary system, while he supposes that the other is seated in the intestinal canal. It is the  
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second disease which is described in the writings of Cullen, Sydenham, Pringle, &c., and from which the tropical form of the malady has not hitherto been discriminated. This latter modification, Mr. McGregor thinks, is so closely connected with diarrhoea, that he has always experienced difficulty in distinguishing them. He informs us, however, that 'mercury is now the remedy every where relied on,' for this state of the dysentery; a remedy which certainly is inadmissible in diarrhoea. The nitric acid has been also employed with success in this complaint.

The *sketch* which we have given of these *Sketches* will impress our readers with a favourable idea of their value. It is sufficient to add, that the volume communicates the observations of a man of judgment and experience, on topics of the first importance. The author is generally contented with relating what he saw, without deviating into speculation and hypothesis; though, from some parts of the work, we apprehend that he is infected with the chemical physiology. He seems to conclude that the operation of mercury and nitric acid must be similar, because they both act favourably on the same disease; and he occasionally hints at the oxygenation of the system:—but these are trifling defects, compared with the solid value of the work.

**ART. VIII. Discourses on Theological and Literary Subjects.** By the late Rev. Archibald Arthur, M.A., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. With an Account of some Particulars of his Life and Character. By William Richardson, M.A., Professor of Humanity in the University of Glasgow. 8vo. pp. 521. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

**W**E learn that the discourses here given to the public 'were not intended by their author to be published as they now appear: With the exception of three or four, none of them ever seem to have been written over by him twice. The liberty taken in offering them to the public, was from the wish entertained by his near relations, of preserving and doing honour to his memory; which they thought could be done, even though the works to be published were as imperfect as has now been mentioned. In prosecuting their design, they requested the editor to make a selection of such discourses, and present them to the public in such a manner, as would best answer their intention. He undertook the office with much reluctance; and had he been aware of the great difficulty attending it, his reluctance would have been still greater. But his regard for the deceased overcame his objections.'

This regard ought, we think, to have induced so good a judge to a different determination,—at least with reference to the theological part of the volume. It is cruel to expose to the view of the world, those productions which were never designed by the writer to undergo that ordeal; and the partiality of relatives, who are often altogether incompetent to decide on such matters, should never be deemed of any weight. This remark applies with more force to a public than to a private character. Much might be expected from the person who fills the chair which was once contested by Burke, Hume, and Adam Smith; and therefore here it was not the individual alone who ought to have been considered, but the reputation of a respectable learned body was also involved. If we love the amiable feelings which gave way in this instance, we should have more approved the firmness which would have refused compliance with ill-judged solicitations. It is not difficult, from the above passage, to collect the real sentiments of the editor himself; and we believe that they fully coincide with our own.

Mr. Arthur appears to have been much wedded to the principles of the Scotch Metaphysical School, which pretended to make common sense the basis of its philosophy; and he connects with these principles the great truth which is the subject of his first discourse, the existence of a God, and reasons as if he thought that it could be demonstrated on no others. When he is contented to urge the usual arguments on any of the topics which he considers, he adduces them in an able and agreeable manner; as the following extract exemplifies:

‘ That the universe must have proceeded from a *designing* cause; and could not possibly have proceeded from a cause without design and intelligence, by whatever name it may be denominated, whether it be called chance, or necessity, or fate, is exceedingly obvious. Nothing beautiful, regular, and orderly, ever proceeded, or can proceed, from an undesigning cause. Suppose matter to have existed originally of itself, and to have been endued with motion from eternity; and suppose that motion to have been continued without diminution; there is no doubt, but these materials, continually agitated, would, in the course of millions of ages, have assumed various forms; but there is no probability, that ever these forms would have been regular; and much less that there should be regularity in all their revolutions, mutual connections, and dependencies. Did ever chance form a machine so regular as a watch? Throw the different wheels, and springs, and pinions, of which a watch is composed, into one vessel; and keep the whole in motion for ages; and after all, neither the whole, nor any part of them, will ever be properly placed and adjusted.—Take a case that has often been put in handling this argument. Suppose a triangular prism, with three unequal sides, and a scabbard perfectly adapted to it, to be both set in motion through empty space; grant both of them the power of altering their motions,

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and of flying up and down in every possible direction, it is infinity to one that they will never meet. Supposing they did meet, it is still infinity to one, that they do not meet in that one particular direction in which the prism will enter its scabbard. If chance, then, cannot effectuate those simple adjustments, to which the design of a child is equal, how can it be imagined that it should adjust the innumerable parts and revolutions in the universe? There is not the slightest shadow of probability to justify such a supposition. Even though chance should sometimes have stumbled upon a regular form, after a variety of trials, in the way that Epicurus imagined men, and animals, and vegetables, to have been fashioned; these forms would again have been immediately destroyed, in the same manner that the monstrous appearances that had existed before them, in infinite multitudes, were destroyed, in consequence of the motion and changes of situation, which, upon that supposition, are always going on among the particles of matter. If chance never could arrange unorganized matter into those beautiful and regular forms with which we see it invested; could it, or necessity, or any blind cause, by whatever name it may be called, ever produce a being endued with life, sensation, intelligence, and the power of voluntary action? Can that which has itself no design or understanding, produce a wise and intelligent mind? The supposition is absurd. It is supposing an effect to be produced by an inadequate cause; which is precisely the same thing as to suppose it produced by no cause at all. It is strange that such an opinion should have ever been embraced by philosophers, the folly of which is manifest even to a child. An infant, if its bells on its rattle be taken away, never dreams that they were taken away by nobody, but immediately judges that they were removed by some person or other. Even a dog, if a stone be thrown at him, never imagines that the pain he feels arose without a cause. He either flies from the place, that he may be exposed to no further sufferings, or he turns with resentment to defend himself.

Mr. Arthur is not equally successful when he is required to meet close reasoning, and to combat subtil disputation. The maxims of his school taught him to regard as replete with danger, Mr. Hume's doctrine relative to cause and effect; and in an evil hour he undertook to refute it. His mode might have proved satisfactory to his pupils, but we suspect that a different fate awaits it, when submitted to competent judges.—In the much admired *Essay on Necessary Connection*, Mr. Hume denies that we have any knowledge of power, or of any necessary connection between cause and effect; he also contends that we are never able to discover any quality which binds these together, and which renders the one an infallible consequence of the other. Here, in the judgment of Mr. Arthur, is laid the corner stone of atheism; and he stoutly sets himself to work to destroy it. It is unfortunate that, in order to clear his way, he has thought it necessary to subvert the foundation of Mr. Locke's philosophy, namely his doctrine on the origin

of ideas. Finding that Mr. Hume grounded his conclusions on this doctrine, he boldly denies it; tells us that we have many ideas which are neither derived from sensation nor reflection; and produces, as examples, our ideas of substance and identity. He ought first to have proved that we have an idea of substance, before he took the trouble of denying its derivation from certain sources; for it is to be observed that, though he will not allow that it is effected by sensation or reflection, he does not assign to it any other cause. Had the Professor looked into the elementary treatises on logic, he would have seen that the instance which he puts is there stated as being something unknown, in which qualities inhere; so that if the learned lecturer were in the situation of other men, which is that of having ideas only in the cases in which he had knowledge, we fear he would have been at a loss when called to produce this substance. What is our knowledge of any one single object? is it any other than that of its qualities? All beyond is supposition: a substratum in which they unite may or may not exist; whatever the fact may be, it lies beyond our view. The answer of the Philosopher, had the objection been urged to him personally, we conjecture would have been this; "Shew to me that the idea exists, which you maintain does not proceed either from sensation or reflection. In the mean time, I am at liberty to observe, that it is no mighty feat to demonstrate that certain sources are incapable of producing what never did exist. Believing as you did, that such an idea did exist, and negating the generally received mode of derivation, it would have been condescending in you to have shewn what the source was, whence it did proceed."

'The idea of identity,' says Mr. Arthur, 'is neither derived from sensation nor reflection.' It would be perhaps affecting too great a precision of language, to object to calling that an idea which is made up of several ideas. Identity is a term which involves a proposition, or it may be considered as a general complex idea; let it then be restricted in its application to something determinate; let it also be analyzed into its component parts; and we shall not find any one of them which may not be traced to the allowed sources. The system of Locke, it seems, then, stands firm against the Professor's attack; and so far Mr. Hume comes off unhurt. We admit that it is because he thinks he has shewn that neither sensation nor reflection furnishes us with ideas of power or necessary connection, that Mr. Hume is led to deny our having any knowledge of these matters. The reader is aware that the Philosopher discusses less the things themselves, than our knowledge of them; that he does not absolutely controvert their existence, but that he simply

simply maintains that we have no proof of them ; that, as far as our knowledge goes, there is no causation, there is nothing more than constant consequence or conjunction.

: In the subsequent passages, the Professor makes liberal concessions to the Philosopher ; for he admits that the idea of power cannot be collected from the operations of inanimate objects, and that the relation of cause and effect does not subsist among them :

‘None, however, except beings possessed of understanding and will, can properly be said to be endowed with active power ; or, to speak more accurately, none but beings possessed of will, are really endowed with it ; for understanding is implied in the very notion of will, as no person can will an action of which he has no conception. Hence there is no propriety in ascribing efficiency or power to inanimate objects. Matter is inert, and can have no active power whatever. When we say that the stroke of a club is the cause of the motion of a ball, we use language metaphorically ; and we do not really mean that the club is the cause of the motion, but that the intelligent and active being who holds it, and strikes with it, is the cause. The effect is the consequence of volition ; and the mind of the agent is connected with it, notwithstanding the intermediate service of the club, no less than it is with those events where there is nothing intermediate, but the swelling of muscles, and the other involuntary motions of the human body. The club itself, we know, possesses no power ; and though it and the ball were to be in conjunction for a century, no motion would ensue from their position.—We are apt to speak of natural causes ; we see motion produced in one body by means of another : But the language here is metaphorical, and no man believes that the body, which is considered as the mover, has in itself any power to communicate motion ; but is, on the contrary, convinced that its motion is occasioned by something else.’—

‘The notion of power in ourselves differs from the notion of it suggested by the revolutions and changes of the material world. With regard to our own power, we feel an inward conviction, by means of which we naturally and involuntarily connect our volition with its consequence.

‘In observing those laws of the material world, on the contrary, which we usually denominate causes, in conjunction with the events which happen agreeably to them, we perceive no such natural and intimate connection. With respect to natural effects, we must gather our knowledge from experience and observation ; and after collecting a variety of instances, must determine the law to be universal or partial. In this case, we are not judging, in reality, concerning cause and effect ; we are gathering general conclusions from inductions of particulars ; we are not thinking of power at all ; nor do we speak of cause and effect, unless in a metaphorical and analogical sense. Power and efficiency are the attributes of a voluntary and intelligent agent, and of him only. Mind is the only cause with which we are acquainted ; and in consequence of its exertions only, can effects be produced.’

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It follows, then, that both the parties agree in the positions, that flame is not the cause of heat, and that the vibration of a chord does not cause sound; that these are merely conjoined events; that there is a constant coincidence between them; that where the one takes place, the other ensues; and that our knowledge does not go beyond this invariable close succession. Causation, according to Mr. Arthur, is effected only where mind is concerned; when an act of volition is succeeded by an event, there, he says, is power, there is causation: in that case, there exists a necessary connection. How is this proved?—Mr. Arthur replies; ‘in every action which we perform in consequence of our volition, we are convinced we exerted power; we are convinced that we are causes; and we are satisfied that there is a connection between our volition and the subsequent action.’ In our turn, we would ask how long have the suggestions of our feelings been deemed infallible proofs in philosophical investigations? The common sense system is no doubt extremely convenient for solving difficulties, but we were not aware that it went the length which is here taken. The question is not, what our apprehensions are, which are here termed convictions: but whether these are correct, whether they are well founded? We have a conviction that the eye informs us of distances, and of the forms of objects: but it is not disputed that philosophy has taught us that this conviction is false; and that we owe this information to experience and association, not solely to the organ of sight. May not our conviction be really as fallacious in the case of a volition, and an act consequent on it? Let us examine what actually takes place on that occasion. The mind wills, the nerves are moved, the muscles contract, an impulse is given, an event follows. Do we see more of power, more of causation, or necessary connection, here, than in the case of flame and the vibrating chord? Do we discover in the one case, or in the other, any thing beyond conjoined events;—do we know any thing more? We may suppose a great deal, but suppositions are not knowledge.

‘It actions’ (says the Professor) ‘did not proceed from our exertion of power, if they were not caused by us, we should regard them with indifference, and they would never occasion us any regret.’ To this the answer is obvious, that however they originate, and in whatever way they are produced, the degree in which they concern us is the same, since we are equally involved in their consequences; and this consideration sufficiently accounts for the regret which we feel. When we examine subjects philosophically, we must discriminate between matter of conjecture and matter of knowledge: but this duty seems to have been overlooked by the Professor. It may be

be observed on the distinction made by Mr. Arthur between mental and physical causation, that our original conviction is as strong in the instances of the latter, as in those of the former. We are as firmly persuaded that flame causes heat, as that volition causes muscular motion. The fact of the invariable conjunction of these events effectually answers all practical purposes.

Mr. Hume contends that we derive all our knowledge of causes and effects from experience; and this clearly results from the hypothesis of no necessary connection. If we discover nothing in causes which would lead us, *à priori*, to infer the effects, it follows of course that we can only be taught that relation by experience. To shew that this consequence of his system is conformable to what actually exists, he remarks, that if we only once observe a conjunction of objects, we do not immediately set up the relation of cause and effect, but that we do this after having seen them repeatedly conjoined. We never met with any thing more puerile than the Professor's manner of controverting this fact:

'If we saw one man stab another, it would be an event of which we had no experience; but though a single instance, we would have no more hesitation in referring it to its cause, and in saying that it proceeded from the anger or malice of the person who perpetrated it, than we would have, though we had seen fifty instances of a like nature.—It is needless to multiply instances. Cases every day occur in common life, where effects are presented to us of a different nature from any that we have formerly met with. We are sensible of their novelty, yet we do not hesitate in referring them to their proper causes. We do not wait till a variety of similar cases happen, that we may form our judgment by experience; but without any experience, we consider the cause and the effect as connected with one another; and this we do in the generality of instances, with as much certainty as if we had been accustomed to them all our lives.'

Were experience confined to the information which we derive from our own personal observation, it would be a scanty treasure indeed: but could Mr. Arthur be ignorant that, by conversation and reading, we make the experience of others our own? Had we never learned from others the effects of stabbing, should we infer, from the mere act, that the sufferer would die?

If, however, the success of the Professor in this arduous attempt has disappointed us, we must applaud his motives, since we learn from him that he regarded Mr. Hume's principles, concerning cause and effect, as the grounds of his atheistic conclusions. Yet, for our own part, we cannot perceive that they at all aid the sophisms, by which that philosopher endeavours to weaken the argument in favour of the existence of the supreme Being, as drawn from the marks of design visible in the works of nature.

nature. On either hypothesis, the analogy is equally open to attacks of the kind which he has advanced: but so completely is the ground, on which these stand, removed by Dr. Paley in his celebrated work on *Natural Theology*, that we shall never expect to see them in future advanced by sceptics.

Whether the doctrine here impugned be or be not the true one, most certain it is that it has no tendency to favour atheism. It even more requires the intervention of a Deity, and represents him as more immediately and universally a moving active cause, than its opposite system; it even directly accords with the hypotheses of those who recognized a divine interposition in every event that occurs; while it completely demolishes the bases on which have been constructed the rude systems of ancient atheists, and the better considered though equally absurd schemes of their modern followers;—it also takes from materialists one of their main arguments in favour of the necessity of human actions. It is then clear that no consequences attach to this doctrine, which fairly ought to excite apprehension. Not only have some of the soundest heads, and the best judges, deemed this tenet innocent, but they have even sanctioned it by their adoption. In the list of those who have given it a preference, stand the names of Reid and Price, the cotemporary opponents of its celebrated author; to whom we may add those of Professors Waring, Robison, and Dugald Stewart. The truth is that, in the *Essay on Necessary Connection*, Mr. Hume is correct as far as he goes; and the only question is, could he have proceeded farther, or has he in this instance assigned to the region of chimeras what did not belong to it? Professor Arthur has attempted to convict him of having so acted, but has failed in the effort. As it is a grand point in metaphysics, we should be glad to see it treated by a more able hand, and the controversy with respect to it finally set at rest. No one will peruse the *Essay on Necessary Connection* without admitting that, as an able and ingenious disquisition, it has never been exceeded; that it has been composed in the true spirit of philosophy; and that in no part of his works do the unrivalled penetration and subtilty of the philosopher appear to more advantage. Whether it be possible or not to advance farther than he has gone, this we repeat will be conceded, that he has discovered the right track; and that, as far as he has travelled, we cannot safely separate from him.

We cannot help being of opinion that this Lecturer, when treating of theology, was little in his element, and that he had only occasionally devoted his mind to the subject. Many of his observations, however, when treading this ground, well deserve attention; his comments on Leibnitz's system of optimism will

will be perused with pleasure by the judicious reader; and they may be considered as indicative of what the author was capable of accomplishing when he called forth his utmost exertions.

The latter part of the volume is by far the most interesting. It consists of *Literary Discourses*. Those of them which treat of matters of taste are all valuable, and some of them in our judgment possess claims to superior praise. Objects of this nature appear to have engaged much of the author's consideration; his observations on them display great sensibility, are expressed with vivacity and felicity, and they will be contemplated by kindred minds with satisfaction. Our limits will not allow us nicely to examine the theoretical parts of these papers: but we do not so much commend these, as the incidental remarks which occur in illustration, and which stand on ground totally independent of them.—The Professor makes beauty depend altogether on 'colour and figure.' His hypothesis leads him to pass in review the disquisition of the same topic by Mr. Burke; and his criticisms on the performance of that great genius display much acuteness and originality. He admits that smallness is generally incident to beauty, but he complains of the want of precision in the language of Mr. Burke on this subject; observing that

'The true answer to the question, why beauty is inconsistent with largeness of dimension? appears to me to be the following.—In large figures there is a degree of uniformity, which produces an effect upon the mind, very different from that which is produced by beauty. The outline is carried on through a considerable length of space without any sensible inflexions. There is not that marked variation, that quick succession of parts, which is necessary for exciting a gay and lively emotion. In objects that are of smaller dimension, the changes in the outline are more rapid and sensible. Hence the emotion to which they give occasion is more lively and cheerful. A beautiful object, of consequence, must not exceed that size which admits of such quick and sensible variations of surface. But in a great variety of objects, where the structure and form of the several parts which constitute the object is diversified, bodies, of magnitudes considerably different from one another, may all of them be possessed of beauty, in perfect consistency with this principle. The long neck of the swan is no deformity, but on the contrary is an ornament; because in the natural posture of that bird, it is moulded into an elegant curve, in which all the parts insensibly run into one another. The magnitude, then, of beautiful objects, must be limited in such a manner as to be consistent with this general property which all of them appear to possess, and may therefore be ascertained with a sufficient degree of accuracy.'

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The Professor allows smoothness to be a concomitant of beauty, but denies that of itself it can ever be an ingredient of that quality :

‘ I apprehend that the pleasant effect produced by smooth objects, is principally owing to that glossiness which they commonly possess ; in consequence of which, they reflect the rays of light that fall upon them, on the eye of the spectator. If a surface appear to be perfectly uniform throughout, notwithstanding the highest degree of smoothness, it will excite no sensation of beauty. In order to render it agreeable, it is requisite that there should appear upon it diversity of colour, or at least, different shades of the same colour connected with one another. This effect is more completely produced, when there is some degree of curvature in the polished substance, than when it is perfectly level. Whenever this is the case, it occasions a much greater variety in the colours of the rays of light that are reflected. The leaves of trees, the petals of flowers, and the feathers of birds, are all constructed so as to be convex on the one side and concave on the other ; and accordingly, they produce the effect of their glossy smoothness in the most perfect manner.’

Great merit is here ascribed to Mr. Burke for representing beauty as consisting in gradual variation of form in general ; instead of confining it, as had frequently been done by others, to any particular curve.

Delicacy, the Professor contends, is never of itself (any more than smoothness) an ingredient of beauty, but it may be incident to objects that are beautiful. Had he studied in a different school of philosophy, he would have allowed that the sensation excited by delicacy might be opposite in its nature to those which call forth the feeling of beauty ; and that still it might, when associated with those which produce that effect, heighten the feeling to which, taken separately, it bears no relation.

In the other miscellaneous papers comprized in this volume, we do not meet with any thing which particularly challenges notice ; they are of unequal merit, though all of them bear marks of intelligence and information.

From a short account of the Professor, which is inserted at the close of the work, it appears that he was a very interesting person, endowed with superior natural ability, and distinguished by great worth and very considerable attainments.

ART. IX. *An Essay on the Principle of Commercial Exchanges*, and more particularly of the Exchange between Great Britain and Ireland: with an Enquiry into the practical Effects of the Bank Restrictions. By John Leslie Foster, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. pp. 209. 5s. Boards. Hatchard. 1804.

ART. X. *The Principles of Currency and Exchange illustrated by Observations on the State of the Currency of Ireland, the high Rates of Exchange between Dublin and London, and the Remittances of Rents to Irish Absentees*. By Henry Parnell, Esq. 12mo. pp. 186. 4s. Boards. Budd. 1805.

THE immortal work of Montesquieu would possess inestimable value, if it only impressed us with the difficulties of legislation, and solely directed our attention to instances in which the effects of laws, and the proposed objects of the enacting authority, have proved widely different. It frequently happens that the course of human affairs renders innovations necessary. If, however, they are occasionally indispensable, they invariably require, in matters of moment, to be introduced with delicacy and caution; and, if they affect the frame of a government, or the mode of its administration, they should be conducted under the guidance of the highest wisdom and the profoundest experience which a state can call into action. Yet where is that foresight to be found, which can discern all the consequences of a new and untried political regulation?

It is well known that the emergence, which led to the enactment restricting the Bank of England from making good its engagements in cash, occasioned in this country a general alarm; and that the remedy, with which it was proposed to meet the danger, was not received with a different emotion. The intelligence of a most important and brilliant victory materially assisted the contrivers of the salvo to obtain a favourable reception in the first instance; and as it happens in most cases, so it proved in this, that *ce n'est que le premier pas qui coûte*: the difficulties attending its progress diminished in each stage, and it finally acquired the sanction of the legislature.

The measure to which we allude, in itself considered, was by no means equivocal. It had recently been known only as a revolutionary device, and had never been practised on a large scale, or for any length of time, under a regular government. We had recently seen its bitter fruits gathered in our own vicinity. The dangerous power, we admit, was in this country entrusted to persons superior to suspicion, and was to be exercised under the eye of Parliament: but still, as its depositaries are men, they are liable to err; and besides there may be in the measure itself, if suffered to continue, those seeds of evil, against the effects of which no human skill or address can protect.

On the whole, we cannot refrain from wishing that, while this regulation remains in force, public vigilance may be ever awake to guard, as much as may be practicable, against the mischiefs to which it may lead. It was our antient, safe, and wise policy to entrust as little as possible to discretion; and to allot to power, wherever lodged, precise and well defined limits.

It will perhaps be said that this measure has rendered us capable of exertions which have augmented our consideration, increased our influence, and extended the sphere of our activity: but if it has immediately led to these flattering consequences, and if it has temporarily raised us above our natural situation, it is not yet determined whether it has secured for us any solid or permanent advantages. It is a part of a great whole, which is as yet incomplete. What the judgment will be which posterity will form of it, we shall not here attempt to anticipate.

Our unfortunate sister island, disregarding past examples, furnishes us with an additional warning. Abusing the regulation in question, if unsupported, she must ere this time have plunged into bankruptcy; and as it is, she is suffering all the evils of a discredited paper currency. As we sympathize in her fate, let us also learn wisdom from it: she reads us a lesson, by which if we do not profit we shall be indeed without excuse.

The investigation of the financial difficulties under which Ireland laboured, which was made in the last session of Parliament, is highly creditable to the honourable persons engaged in it, merits the warm acknowledgements of the people of that country, and must satisfy them that, as far as the Legislature is concerned, their interests will not suffer. The principles on which they proceeded, the views which they entertained of the mischief, and the remedy which they proposed for it, exactly correspond with those which had before occurred to the authors of the two able tracts now under review; which, though antecedent in date to the Parliamentary Report, will be found in fact materially to elucidate and expound that able and important communication.—It follows, from what we have just observed, that there is a striking coincidence between the opinions of these two authors; and such being the case, we take the liberty of including both performance in one article. What obligations either may owe to the other, or what may be reciprocally due between them, we have not the means of determining.

In the preliminary part of Mr. Foster's elaborate work, he discusses and illustrates various abstract points which are of general interest, in order to prepare his readers for accompanying him in his subsequent reasoning. The treatise, on this ac-

count alone, well deserves attention from novices in the important science of political economy.

The effect of a foreign expenditure, Mr. Foster observes, is to increase the mass of industry at home, and to force the produce of the excess thus created to pass out of the country. The foreign subsidies of England, he remarks, had this operation; and, during the period of their being remitted, our exports to Germany, which never before had amounted to two millions a year, averaged four times that sum. This increase was rendered necessary to enable us to procure the specie which we had engaged to transmit, or to answer the bills of exchange that were drawn on us: but we are not hence to suppose, (he adds,) as some have done, that the subsidies, by calling forth these additional exertions, and by creating this surplus of exports, enriched the country. This was not the case, because the capital was spent on the unproductive labour of our fleets and armies, and on that of the hired troops. In a political view, it may have been expended beneficially; but, commercially considered, it was so much capital lost to the state, with all its influence in calling forth and animating industry; and it was replaced, not as in the regular course of things, by the foreign commerce, but by the British public.—Mr. F. calculates that the real balance of trade in favour of Great Britain, in the course of the last century, amounted to little short of five hundred millions; and he states that this surplus was principally consumed in foreign expenditure. It appeared in evidence before the Committee appointed to examine into the affairs of the Bank, that our disbursements abroad, in the short space of four years, at one particular period, amounted to the enormous sum of thirty-three millions!

Both these authors ably and candidly examine the case of the absentees. Two millions, it is conjectured, are annually remitted to these claimants; and, on the principles before laid down, the necessary effect of this foreign expenditure must be to force an excess of exports to that amount out of the country. Mr. Foster thus expresses himself on this subject:

‘ Perhaps the most correct mode of considering the effect of the absentees in the abstract would be, that, had they continued in Ireland, they would have given birth to a quantity of produce equal in value to their rents, and *consumed it in Ireland*; but that, living in England, they still give birth to an equal amount of Irish produce, *but consume it in England*. The productions of Irish industry, and the consumption of it, are equal in both cases; but in the latter the produce passes through the Custom-house in its way to the consumer, and therefore falls under observation. But though the quantities produced and consumed in both cases appear to be the same in value, they are certainly different in the nature of the items of which they are composed.

The Irish produce, which would have been consumed in Ireland had the proprietor remained at home, would have been such as his taste and pleasure should have dictated ; but, on his emigration, they become such as the foreign market shall demand. The consumers also are different : for it is not to be supposed that the absentee spends his income in the purchase of Irish commodities ; on the contrary, he spends his Irish rents in the encouragement of English industry ; but then he is the cause that others become the consumers of Irish produce of another description, and to an equal amount. The Irish producers are also different. Had the proprietor remained at home, he would have called forth industry, probably on his own estate, and in its immediate neighbourhood ; but, when settled in England, the proprietor of an estate in Munster may perhaps, to a much greater degree, encourage the industry of Ulster. It is he, indeed, that gives birth to the quantity of produce ; but the quality must be decided by the demand of the foreign market. It is this circumstance, perhaps more than any other, which has made the absentee the object of jealousy in Ireland. The traveller who sees the neglected fields and miserable habitations of his tenants, often can trace out by ditches and hedges the line of demarcation between the estates of the absentee and the resident ; but as he cannot see, so he omits to recollect the circumstance, that the prosperity of the tenants of the resident may possibly be in consequence of the demand for their produce occasioned by the absentee.

Mr. Parnell, expatiating on the same topic, remarks ;

‘ In reasoning upon the effects of the remittances to the absentees, no hesitation is felt in laying it down as a position not to be controverted, that the opinions usually entertained of the injury they do to Ireland as tending to diminish its wealth are altogether erroneous. The want of residence does undoubtedly do mischief, looking to the manners and to the police of the country ; but the want of expenditure, considering only the disposal of the absentee rents, is not actually felt ; for, whether the amount of the rents is applied to purchase goods to be consumed in Ireland, or to be exported from Ireland, the effect upon the wealth of the country is precisely similar ; and this is exactly the difference between a landlord who resides, and a landlord who is an absentee. The one returns his rents into the sources of internal industry by purchasing articles which he consumes in Ireland, the other by purchasing articles which he exports from Ireland ; for if it is fact, that no specie circulates in Ireland, and that Irish Bank paper will not circulate in England, by what other means can these rents of absentees be remitted, except by the export of the productions of Ireland ? That portion, therefore, of the annual income of Ireland which belongs to absentees, and has commonly been considered to be annually taken from the stock of the national wealth, has been contributing to the further accumulation of the national wealth, as much as any other portion of the general income from land or other resources.’

The same writer, in closing his representation of this matter, makes the following fair acknowledgement ; which he accom-

panies with hints that lay serious claims to the consideration of the parties concerned :

‘ When we come to consider the effects of so much of the property of Ireland being possessed by absentees, in a manner distinct from the effects of it, when considered only with regard to the national wealth of Ireland, it must be admitted, that serious injury attends the non-residence of so many persons of great fortunes, and the want of that kind of influence which is so useful amongst the lower orders of the people. But much of this injury might be prevented by a better practice of management of absentee property. It is scarcely credible, how little value is derived by the landlord from property of this kind in comparison to that which it is capable of yielding ; and this in consequence of the same mismanagement that renders the tenantry upon it more wretched and more distant from civilized habits, than the tenantry in general of Ireland. This mismanagement arises from the inattention of the proprietors in appointing their agents, and the further inattention of them in controlling their proceedings. If men were selected who were of respectable character, and of that order in society as to enable them to combine the duties of an agent and a magistrate, little more would be wanting to prevent any injury from arising from this system of absentee property, than the occasional visits of the landlords themselves. Where such a practice has been followed, the advantages in point of income to the landlord, and in point of amendment in the state of the tenantry, have been beyond calculation ; it is one that contributes most effectually to promote the internal improvement of Ireland, and is deserving of being adopted with earnestness by every landlord, who cannot or does not wish to reside there.’

The Parliamentary discussions of the last year can have left none of our readers ignorant that the rates of exchange between London and Dublin were most unfavourable to the latter, varying from 8 to upwards of 11 per cent. Most persons also know that the currency of the two countries differs ; occasioned by the variation in the copper coinage of Ireland, thirteen pence of which are included in a shilling. A sum, therefore, in British currency, exceeds one of the same denomination in Irish by one twelfth ; and hence it follow that 100l. British are equal to 108l. 6s. 8d. The exchange is calculated on a hundred pounds ; and therefore, when at par, the exchange between England and Ireland is 8l. 6s. 8d., or 8½. Previously to the measure of the Bank restriction, the exchange was in favour of Ireland : but, since that period, it has been gradually advancing in an opposite course, and was as high as 19 in the year 1804 ; that is, 10½ above par.—The object of these tracts is to explain this financial phenomenon.

It is an undoubted fact that the ordinary variations in the rates of exchange, between different countries, is occasioned by a balance of debt ; the value of bills of exchange, like the

value of all other articles, depending on the proportion between demand and supply. In the creditor-country, the bills on the debtor-country will be abundant, and therefore cheap; while, in the debtor-country, the bills on the creditor-country will be scarce, and of course dear; the supply, as Mr. Foster expresses it, being in each case inversely as the demand. The rates of exchange between bills are regulated by precisely the same considerations which determine the rates between all other commodities: but it is very justly observed that the variation produced in rates of exchange by this cause, namely, a balance of debt, has a known invariable limit; which is that of the expence of transmitting gold from the one country to the other. It therefore follows that the variation in the rate of exchange between England and Ireland, arising from this cause, cannot much exceed two per cent. Between England and the Continent, it will, on the same principle, admit of a variation considerably higher. We are then compelled to look out for other causes, to account for the enormous high rate of exchange against Ireland. A balance of debt, if there were such, we have seen would only account for a little more than two per cent. out of that excess above par, which has been so high as  $10\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.:—but this cause, in respect to Ireland, never actually existed. Examining the debtor and creditor account between the two islands, we find that Ireland is the creditor party; and that, during the years in which the rate of exchange has been highest against it, there has been annually a balance in its favour of more than half a million. As far, then, as balance of debt goes, it gives an exchange of about 2 per cent. against England; and allowing to this cause its proper weight, instead of diminishing, it swells the difficulty which we have to remove, for it gives us 13, instead of nearly 11 per cent., for which we are to account.

A balance of debt is not, then, the sole cause of variations in the rates of exchange. We have seen that such variations have a fixed limit; and they are also limited not only as to amount, but likewise in regard to duration. Let us suppose the rate of exchange to be unfavourable to a country; a part of its specie is sent out of it; this raises the value of what is left behind, it becomes scarce, and less of it can be given for the same quantity of commodity; this is cheapness. The cheapness works an outlet for the commodity into foreign countries, which goes on while the cheapness continues; that is, till gold enough has found its way into the country, to allow of the same portion of it to be given for commodities as before the unfavourable exchange. The diminution of specie, which follows on the exportation of gold occasioned by an unfavourable rate of exchange,

change, causes fewer importations to take place ; for cheapness checks imports as much as it forces exports : thus we see that, by the admirable laws which regulate the course of human transactions, an unfavourable rate of exchange operates its own cure, and effects that level in commerce without which it would cease to be carried on. An unfavourable exchange, by operating as a premium on exports, and as a check on imports, bears in itself the seeds of its own annihilation ; and in a healthy and sound state of bodies politic, it can be of no long continuance. It is impossible sufficiently to admire this wise provision of nature, which prevents human affairs from falling into irretrievable confusion. Suppose a nation to betray almost incredible improvidence for a short period ; the consequence will be, that a greater quantity of gold will be taken from her when the balance comes to be settled : but the greater this sum is, the higher will be the artificial value allotted to the remainder ; that is, the less will be the quantity of the same metal given for the same commodity :—in other words, the greater will be the cheapness, and of course the larger will be the exports, and the fewer the imports. The more ground there is to work up in order to attain the level, the more is the operative force tending in that direction ; and, in proportion to the intenseness of the action, is that of the re-action ; the greater the mass of specie is, that has been extracted from a country, the greater will be the tenacity, with which it adheres to the remainder, and the attraction with which it draws to itself a foreign supply. These illustrations apply only to exhaustions occasioned by improvident speculations in commerce, and reasonable voluntary grants made on political considerations to other states ; not extending to those copious drainages to which outward violences sometimes give rise,—violences which impair the functions and affect the vitals of a community. Had certain eminent writers, and among others Swift, (it is observed by Mr. Foster,) been aware of this law of nature, they would not have indulged in some predictions which the event has proved to be unfounded. It was supposed, during a great part of the last century, that the remittances to absentees regularly drained Ireland of its specie ; and an author had so fully satisfied himself respecting the rate at which this drainage proceeded, that he assigned a period at which her last guinea would be taken from unhappy Hibernia : while, in fact, notwithstanding that the absentees did not decrease, nor their demands diminish, the quantity of specie went on regularly increasing. The mischief of which the absentees were very innocent, the resident representatives of Ireland, at a later period, found the means of effectually accomplishing,—we mean the banishment of coin.

The size and permanence of the excess above par of the rate of exchange against Ireland, without the fact of its being the debtor-country, demonstratively shew that it must have another cause than the balance of debt. Where shall we find that cause? It is shewn by a superfluity of proof, by both these writers, to arise from the depreciation of the currency of Ireland. The fact admits not of a doubt. Ireland exhibits all the symptoms usually attending such a currency. The market price of bullion is considerably higher than the mint price. The paper has undergone a discount, which, commencing at three-fourths, gradually increased till it has reached 10 per cent. The country suffers from an unfavourable rate of foreign exchange; from the disappearance of coin of the smaller denomination; from the absence of a favourable exchange with England, in consequence of the latter being the debtor-country, and also of the small depreciation of its Bank notes\*.

This demonstration *a priori* is corroborated by notorious facts. Immediately that the Bank was restrained from making its payments in cash, it began to increase its issues of paper; and it continued this system till the amount of its notes nearly quintupled the aggregate of those in circulation previously to the restriction. One-fifth of this vast mass replaces the paper which circulated before the restriction, and two-fifths more come in the room of the gold which that measure forced out of the country. The remaining two-fifths operate to swell the circulating medium beyond what it was in 1797, the epoch of the restriction, as well as that of the commencement of the unfavourable exchange.

No one will dispute that, the quantity of industry and the demands of a country remaining the same, any addition to its circulating medium will, in the proportion of its amount, depreciate that medium. There is no reason for supposing that the industry of Ireland has materially increased since 1797. Currency is to be distinguished from capital; let a sum, as 100, be added to the capital, and it will perhaps not require a greater sum than as 1 to be added to the currency. It cannot therefore be supposed, for a moment, that Ireland can have made such addition to its capital as can require any thing like the addition above stated to its circulating medium; to say nothing of the issues of paper by private bankers, which are reported to be immense. It is then clear that the additions made to the currency by the Bank, and by private bankers, must have had

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\* It appeared in evidence before the committee that 2½ per cent. were given in London, to procure gold. The unfavourable exchange with foreign countries proves the same fact.

the effect of depreciating it; and this depreciation is justly estimated at the premium which is given for guineas, viz. 10 per cent.

It is very obvious that, if the currency of a country be reduced in value, it will occasion the rate of exchange to be nominally against it: but that it will be, as far as it is caused by a degraded currency, only nominally and not really against it, may thus be made apparent:—let us instance the cases of England and Ireland; let us suppose the exchange at 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ ; an Irishman must give 118l. 6s. 8d. for a bill of 100l. on London: but if the 118l. 6s. 8d. only represent the same quantity of commodities which 108l. 6s. 8d. of the old currency represented, it is clear that the exchange is only nominally against Ireland. The real variation takes place only when the currency remains the same, and when the unfavourable rate is limited and temporary, as we have before shewn.

We have, we imagine, abstracted a sufficient number of facts and observations from the two authors, to satisfy our readers that the Bank restriction, and the consequences to which it led, have exclusively caused the unfavourable rate of exchange which presses so hard on our sister island. It now remains for us briefly to state the remedy which the same persons recommend to be applied to mitigate the evil. The only effectual measure for this purpose they state to be that of compelling the Bank to renew its payments in specie: but this, if not impracticable, they regard as not likely to be adopted in present circumstances. It is observed that, previously to the restriction, no sooner did an unfavourable rate of exchange take place, than a run commenced on the Bank for gold; and the consequence of this was that the directors, as soon as they perceived any symptoms of such a change, began to lessen their issues of paper, and at the same time contracted their discounts. This diminution of the circulating medium raised its value, and in course the value of that part of it which consisted of gold; and thus the inducement to export it was destroyed. For the same reason, imports diminished and exports increased, till the balance with foreign countries became even, and the exchanges diminished to a par. Thus did the convertibility of its paper into gold oblige the Bank to keep the equilibrium of the exchanges. Now that it has no interest, as a Bank, to preserve this balance, but a strong opposite interest, how is this most important object to be attained? This is a question which these tracts endeavour to solve.

Too confined a circulating medium, it is observed by both writers, is undoubtedly prejudicial; it checks individual enterprise, and retards the advances of a community towards wealth;

while one that is too large is attended with much more serious mischiefs, being pregnant with all the ills which precede, accompany, and follow a national bankruptcy. There is, as is here suggested, a mean with regard to a circulating medium, which secures public prosperity. If, as Mr. Foster intimates, we have no general rules on which we can proceed *a priori* to ascertain this middle point, he tells us that Banking on the system of payments in cash invariably ascertains it in practice. If the circulating medium exceeds its legitimate limits, it instantaneously experiences depreciation; it decreases in value, compared with those of neighbouring states; the rate of exchange becomes unfavourable; and money dealers are tempted to export the specie part of it. This brings the paper back to the Banks, and they experience a run. The paper which thus returns is cancelled; and the discounts are at the same time lessened. It is evident, then, that where paper is convertible into specie, the undue augmentation of the circulating medium soon effects its own cure; it first causes an unfavourable exchange; this occasions the exportation of specie, which ends in a run on the Banks; while the dread of stoppage induces them to withdraw their paper as fast as they are able, from circulation. This appears to be the grand function which renders the use of specie indispensable in commercial transactions; it prevents the possibility of a pernicious increase of the circulating medium;—a mischief which, if allowed to extend to any length, proves to be the most prolific of political and individual calamities, of any with which humanity is visited:—it produces directly that effect, without which there would be no guarantee for public morals, the security of property, and the existence of states.—To oblige the Bank of England to resume its payments in specie would beyond all question remedy the evils, would remove the unfavourable exchange, and duly reduce the circulating medium: but the patient is too unpleasantly circumstanced, and is too much debilitated by a diseased state of long continuance artificially brought on, to admit of the immediate application of this remedy. It is recommended then, by both these gentlemen, that the Bank of Ireland shall be compelled to make its payments in Bank of England notes, or bills on London at par. This, in the first instance, would be attended with much expense: but Mr. Foster and Mr. Parnell are each of opinion that the Irish Bank may, without injustice, be constrained to incur it. If parliament feels too much tenderness for the Directors, to force them to this unpalatable measure, the two authors are ready to give their sanction to the plan proposed by the committee; which only differs from that which we have just stated, by recommending

commending that the London fund should be provided by government, and not by the Irish Bank. Our limits will not permit us to expatiate on the possible effects of this last proposal. Mr. Foster appears to be fully aware of them. The more eligible method, it strikes us, would be to oblige the Bank, in the first instance, at its own expence, to take whatever steps shall be thought expedient to relieve the public from those evils which its conduct has occasioned; a conduct which, to say the least of it, was highly improvident. If it should be found necessary in the event to assist the Bank, there would be no objection to its being done by government.—It is presumed, by these gentlemen, and by the committee, that the measure above stated would have the effect of removing the unfavourable exchange, and of reducing within due limits the circulating medium.

We must not omit to advert to what is stated in these two publications, respecting the effects on Ireland, which are caused by loans made for its use in London. It is observed by both the writers that, previously to the loans, the remittances made to the absentees forced a proportionate excess of exports out of the country. The loans, they remark, have paralyzed these exertions; the balance of debt caused by the remittances being liquidated by the advances in the way of loan, and which can only find admittance into the country in the shape of imports. Prior to the loans, exports were sent out sufficient to satisfy the foreign demands; on the contrary, from the date of the commencement of the loans, these have gradually diminished in the port of Dublin, till at length they have been considerably exceeded by the imports. The loans, the authors state, can only be remitted either as imports, or in discharge of demands which would have been met with exports. This mode of raising loans, each gentleman represents as most baneful; each regards it as a temptation to extravagance; or, to use the words of Mr. Foster, ‘Ireland exhibits the singular example of a country, whose industry has diminished in the same ratio, in which the demands against her have increased.’

The financial state of Ireland is, we believe, far more distressing than most people in this country are aware. It is inundated with a depreciated paper; every denomination of coin has disappeared; and even the base shillings, of which thirty-five were given in exchange for a guinea note, have not been able to maintain their ground. The Bank only ventures to issue dollars at a nominal value, exceeding the real at the rate of 27 per cent. The poor of the whole of the three southern provinces, with the exception of those of Dublin, are obliged to conduct their dealings by means of 5s., 3s. 6d., 2s. 6d., and 1s. notes

18. notes of private Bankers. Not fewer than a score of Bankers are thus often to be found in the smaller towns; the notes are often forged; and the makers of them frequently become bankrupt. In such a state of things, the fate of the lower class must be inconceivably distressing; and this wholesale calamity is chargeable solely on the measure of the Bank restriction and the abuse made of it by the Directors. It happened that the land proprietors and the trading body of the province of Ulster refused to receive Bank notes; and the consequences have been that coin never ceased to circulate in that part of the country, that the exchange between it and London has remained favourable, and that its inhabitants have been strangers to the distresses which have afflicted the south.

The present authors, and the committee, impute the calamities of the country to the conduct of the Directors of the Bank of Ireland. It is discussed, however, in measured terms, in Mr. Foster's work, and in the parliamentary report: but in the pages of Mr. Parnell, it is treated with less ceremony. He observes that,

' Whilst they were obliged to pay their notes in specie, a certain degree of caution was necessary in extending their discounts, and it was impossible for them to make their issues excessive. When this obligation to pay in specie was removed, they were at once relieved from a restraint, which they must always have considered as a great obstacle in the way of their interests. And it would appear from what has since taken place, that the liberty they acquired obliterated every sentiment of duty to the public, and gave vent only to such feelings and such measures as could only be the result of an inordinate thirst for gain. The depreciation of their paper cannot now be viewed in any other light than as a work of usury. The violation of every money contract in the kingdom has been of no weight in the scale when placed in competition with the 5 per cent. to be made by accommodating the merchants of Dublin. Nor have these guardians of the commercial interests of Ireland permitted their measures to be influenced by the burthens imposed upon trade by the high rates of exchange. Though their proceedings may have arisen from a want of discrimination in comprehending the injury which might result to the public by a depreciation of the currency, and to themselves by being the source of a public calamity, it is, however, necessary for them to consider well the sentiments which are entertained respecting the credit and the utility of the Bank. —

' The Directors should remember, that their corporation was established as a measure of public utility; that it received many privileges from the public through Parliament, and enjoys much of its profits from the species of Banking monopoly which it possesses. When a charge therefore is brought against this institution of such a heedless exercise of its powers, as that of inundating the country with its paper; of diminishing the value of the greatest portion of the property of the country; of establishing a ruinous rate of exchange; and of  
bringing

bringing upon the state all the calamities attending a depreciated currency, it is full time for those who are interested in its future welfare to make an atonement to an injured public by some change in their system. It would be unreasonable in the Bank Proprietors to expect, it would be unjustifiable in Government and Parliament to permit, a further trial of such a system of Banking, if, after the consequences which have attended it, it be persisted in. To know that it is persisted in, it is only necessary to examine the amount of notes in circulation in February and November 1803. It was not to be expected after the conduct of the Directors had been so severely censured in Parliament in the early part of 1803, after the writings of Mr. Boyd, Sir Francis Baring, Mr. Thornton, and Lord King, had fully explained that a depreciation must necessarily result from an excessive issue of paper, that the increase in their issues should be no less in the short period between February and November, than 328,179*l*. When it is also in the recollection of every one, that in the month of last December, an advertisement in the public papers announced a dividend of 7½ per cent. and a bonus of 5 per cent. upon the stock of the company, who can say that the Bank of Ireland, incorporated by the public, and receiving from the public every benefit of monopoly, have fulfilled their duty?

The performances before us are not to be regarded as trifles of the day. They immediately relate, it is true, to occurrences which we trust will prove to be only transient, but to occurrences which are very far from being of an ordinary nature. They contain facts which will be always important; and elucidations of serious points of political economy which will never fail to be read with interest. They farther note and expose errors which offer important lessons to the Parliament and people of this island, and which we trust will not be thrown away on the one or the other, Mr. Parnell's description of the situation of the Irish Bank Directors applies to that of certain other personages, who have similar unlimited authority vested in their hands, and who have it in their power to affect an infinitely more vast system of general prosperity.

‘ However great the authority and enlarged the control of the Bank over the commercial world, by the nature of its first institution, inferior indeed were its powers at that time in comparison with those attributes with which it is now invested by the restriction of cash payments. It is no longer under the necessity of filling the humble character of a cautious mercantile company, calculating the extent to which its dealings may be increased according to the capital it possesses to give them security; nor regulating its proceedings by the apprehension of failure, or the hazard of commercial speculation; but in full possession of an unconditional power of regulating the currency of the kingdom; of increasing its profits at pleasure, by even making such issues of paper as may depreciate that currency; and of preventing or imposing upon the State those evils which must result

result from yielding to or resisting the temptation of gain. This power of issuing the medium of circulation, which, whilst specie was in circulation, was the immediate prerogative of the crown, is now wholly vested in the hands of the Bank Directors. In the official character of these gentlemen, a portion of the former duties of his Majesty's ministers is united with those of a trader, and their conduct must necessarily be at all times wavering between the instinct of mercantile gain, and the duty they owe the public.'

Much at large as the superior cast of these productions has induced us to consider them, still have we been obliged to pass over numerous facts and observations which highly deserve the attention of an enlightened public. The volumes will amply reward the labour of those who will make themselves masters of their contents; and, if our judgment do not mislead us, will intitle their authors to the favourable regards of their country.

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ART. XI. *The Song of the Sun*. A Poem of the eleventh Century; from the more antient Icelandic Collection called *The Edda*. Imitated by the Rev. James Beresford, M. A., Fellow of Merton College, Oxford. With a Preface, Notes, and short Account of the Author. 8vo. pp. 109. 3s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1805.

IN estimating the merit of the antients and of the moderns, writers are apt to deviate into opposite extremes. The advocate who takes his brief on the side of the former is sure to descant on the importance of unrestrained genius, and to represent them as in a situation peculiarly favourable to bold and original conception. The counsel for the moderns, on the other hand, enlarges on the progressive improvements which science and literature have introduced, on the value of method and arrangement, and on the utility of taste and criticism in correcting the aberrations of a wild fancy, and in giving to the creations of the mind their due proportion and beauty. An enlightened judgment may restrain the flights of the imagination, and the knowledge of rules may damp the ardour of genius: but we are not hence to conclude that those poets are most to be admired who write in the infancy of nations, and that the mis-shapen conceptions of the untutored intellect are preferable to compositions of a more refined period.

An enthusiastic admiration of antiquity will lead to opinions which are at variance with the sober dictates of the understanding. If we admit that the genuine fire of poetry has abated in our island, and that our present bards labour under the disadvantage of the "age too late;"—if we allow that the intellectual revolutions which are produced by the progress of civilization,

lization, the purification of taste, and the establishment of critical laws, are unpropitious to the bold darings of the Muse;—must we be forced to adopt the sentiment of Mr. Beresford, that ‘the age of poetry is always to be sought in the *greener* periods of nations?’ Is there not a middle course? Must we revert to barbarism, in order to escape the torpid influence of excessive refinement and starch fastidiousness? Is nothing poetical but what is rude, monstrous, and incoherent?—One period in the annals of a state will be more favourable to true poetry than another; and that period is generally to be found in the interval between the first improvements in literature and its extreme civilization. Before Homer, poetry was known among the Greeks: but the Muse did not count her highest honours to be in the crude sallies of the imagination, any more than Architecture would point to the hut or the wigwam as the pride of its art; nor would Painting exhibit the rough traces of the first designers as preferable to the correct and finished drawings of the ablest masters. Some knowledge of art is necessary to produce a whole. Homer has the fire of poetry, but he has method and arrangement also, by means of which the brilliancy of his genius produces its captivating effect.

After all the attempts which have been made to exalt the first specimens of poetry in our northern climes, how miserable are they in point of conception, imagery, and pathos, compared with those which were produced at subsequent periods, when the mind was more strengthened by culture! Though enthusiasts applaud the former, they will remain among that “reading which is never read.”

Mr. Beresford introduces to our notice an Icelandic poem, said to have been written in the eleventh century, by high encomiums on the merit of that ‘invention which luxuriates in a new creation,’ and of ‘the happy audacity of Genius;’ and we were led by his well-written introduction to expect from “the Song of the Sun” all that could charm the fancy, enrapture the mind, and impress the heart. We were prepared to meet with something after the perusal of which all modern verse would seem “flat, stale, and unprofitable,” and even the Muse of Shakespeare or Milton would scarcely be tolerated. What, then, was our astonishment, when we found in this *sublime* poem little more than some crude notions of Heaven and Hell, wound up by the following stanza:

‘Father Omnipotent! Puissant Son!  
All Holy Spirit!—hear thy servant pray!  
To thee I pray, who gavest man to be,  
Take us—O take from Miseries all away!’

*This,*

This, in plain prose, is the invocation of our Litany, "O ever blessed and glorious Trinity, three persons and one God, have mercy upon us, miserable sinners."

According to the Memoir prefixed to this poem, Sæmundar, author or compiler of the most antient Edda, from which the Song of the Sun is taken, was born in the southern quarter of Iceland, about the year 1054: left his country when a boy for the purpose of travelling in quest of information and learning; was discovered by St. Jonas, Bishop of Hóla in Iceland, as he was on his journey to Rome; and was induced to accompany him in his tour, and to return with this prelate to his own country, in A.D. 1076: Hence it is probable that the prominent ideas of Sæmundar, in his "Song of the Sun," were not the fruit of 'invention which luxuriates in a new creation,' but were little more than the fancies which he had collected from the Italian priests: who, perhaps, suggested to Dante, in a subsequent period, the absurdities of his *Inferno* and *Paradiso*.

As a curiosity, this poem may be intitled to some attention: but it is ushered in with too much parade; and its editor and translator appreciate it far beyond its intrinsic value. Its plan is given in a few words:

'The Author assumes the character of a Father, who, after his death, returns to Earth, for the purpose of delivering admonitions, reciting examples, and revealing the condition of departed Mortals, in the infernal and celestial worlds, to his Son. The above communications are supposed to be made through the medium of dream, or vision.

'With what precise view, the Poet has entitled his performance *The Solar Song*, or *Song of the Sun*, it is not very easy to determine. Among the reasons alleged by the Editor, or Annotators, the most probable appears to be the frequently recurring mention of that Luminary, in the course of the Poem; but, in the Translator's opinion, the true foundation of the title is to be found in the second line of the 78th stanza.'

We should rather conclude that it was generally intitled *Sólar-líð*, *solaris oda*, or *Song of the Sun*, from the 81st and 83d stanzas, in which places it is expressly called the Solar-Song:

We copy a few stanzas, to enable our readers to judge how far our opinion of this composition is justified by the poem itself:

'There, men all haggled o'er, in troops I saw,  
Pacing where hot-red embers pav'd the road:  
No visage there, but show'd, as I beheld,  
Painted deplorably with smoking blood!

' There

- There saw I numbers, on the sands outcast ;  
All, from the Sacred Supper, once, debarr'd :—  
O'er every head, a star profane there hung,  
Whence rays of direct emanation glar'd !
- Those men I saw, who, at another's lot,  
With envious hate had teem'd, and fest'ring spleen : —  
On ev'ry breast, in characters of blood  
Publish'd unsparingly, their crime was seen.
- There, multitudes I saw—unjoyous Souls ! —  
All wand'ring wide in ever devious maze :—  
Such meed hath purchas'd ev'ry child of man,  
Bewilder'd in the world's unrighteous ways.
- Those men I saw, whose hands, by daily fraud,  
Another's heap had foully touch'd away : —  
In throngs, to Fegiarns' Hall they mov'd along,  
And loads of lead groan'd under, night and day.
- Those men I saw, that oft had, in the World, —  
A brother man dissiz'd of life, and store :—  
On these Hell's Dragons, venomous and strong,  
Pounc'd—and, with ravening snatch, their breasts ran o'er !
- Those, too I saw, who shunn'd at holy times,  
To lift their hands in pray'r :—but lo ! at last,  
Those rebel-hands, by cruel nails fix'd down,  
To burning rocks were held for ever fast !
- Those men I saw, whose hearts had entertain'd  
Untameable conceit and scornful pride : —  
Now, flames, in bitter mockery they bore,  
Around the gorgeous vestment blazing wide.
- Those men I saw, whose work it was to spread,  
Against another's fame, injurious lies :—  
Ravens of Hell, with ever-furious beak,  
Were, from the sockets tearing out their eyes !—
- But all those horrors which the Damn'd endure  
In various punishment, thou can'st not know ;  
Sweet sins to bitter penance go away :—  
*Still in the rear of pleasure, follows woe.*

Though we cannot extol the sublimity of Sæmundar's poetry, we very readily admit that it appears to advantage when contrasted with those later performances of the Northern Muse to which Mr. Beresford adverts ; and the conceits and obscurity of which he very judiciously exposes. As this subject cannot be better treated than it is by Mr. B. in his preface, we shall avail ourselves of his representation :

• The most striking feature, to a modern eye, of the less ancient songs of the North, of such, I mean, as were composed by those  
Scalds

Scalds who had emigrated from Iceland, in search of patronage at the courts of other countries, and whose genius degenerated, together with their native dignity of spirit, is *obscurity*. Finding that the few poetical images which are supplied by a savage life were so entirely exhausted by their predecessors that no room was left for invention, they were tempted to condescend to such mechanical tricks as will be presently shewn to my readers. The obscurity above-mentioned is stated by the learned in the Northern languages to have been sometimes voluntary, and sometimes necessitated. Whenever the obscurity was *wilful*, we are desired to believe that it was a stratagem of the poet, whereby to entrap the reverence of the unlettered, whose admiration was caught through the medium of their ignorance:—*omne ignotum pro mirabili* seems to have been, in all latitudes, the motto of the vulgar. The *necessary* obscurity, which may, in some sort, be considered as idiomatic, and which has been unconsciously much assisted by the heedlessness, or stupidity, of transcribers, is twofold. In one way, it arose from the unexampled variety of synonyms, both direct, and circuitous, for which all the Northern languages are remarked. In the other way, it happened thus:—a word had, in many instances, the same sound and even the same letters, with wholly different meanings. These separate instruments of confusion, spontaneously offered by the bountiful Genius of the language, were, sometimes, in skilful hands, combined into a double engine, of prodigious execution. Thus, the word *hof*, signifying a *horse's hoof*, denotes likewise, both decency, and understanding: to express, then, either of these latter ideas, the wily poet would use—not the word *hof* itself, which was common to the three senses, and which *might* therefore, have been taken in the right—but, (with a stroke of ambiguity which would have done honour to the Sphinx,) some one (or more) of the numerous paraphrastical appellations of a horse's hoof, which, even if his honest reader had heard it before, he might, happily have chanced not to comprehend: or, though comprehending it, not to apply:—and thus was the poor wonderer, already half blind by nature, made double sure by being directed out of his way!—We see then, that if, in some instances, the bard was compelled to employ a circuitous synonym by the mere want of a simple term; in many more, he would use the former, in cold blood, and with a double plot of deception in his head, where the latter was to have been, as easily, had. I cannot resist the temptation of producing another very curious specimen, at more length, of this coincidence of necessity and inclination in the great business of confounding the reader: I find both instances in the "Letters on Iceland," written by Dr. Uno Von Troil, the Swedish traveller. The following is a sample of what an Icelandic Writer on the art of poetry, in his chapter of "figures," might, probably, have called the *simple obscure*, as opposed to the *compound*, which I have just illustrated from the instance of the horse's hoof. I will first exhibit the original passage, as taken from an Icelandic love-song—in which, by the way, it is stated that there occur no less than 147 designations of the single creature called *woman*.—*Varium et mutabile semper!*

‘ Heigni, eg hamri kringdau  
Hang a riupu tangar  
Grympis sylgs a galga  
Gynnung bruar linna.’

\* The translation of this passage, (for the *meaning*, be it observed, is at two removes from the original,) is as follows:—“I hang the round, beaten, gaping snake on the end of the bridge of the mountain-bird, at the gallows of Odin’s shield.” For the solution of this serious riddle, the distracted reader is to learn that the round, gaping, beaten snake, is a *ring*; a snake with his tail received into his *gaping* mouth, representing a *circle*; and the metal of which the ring is formed having, of course, been *beaten* into rotundity. The bridge of the mountain-bird, or falcon, is *the hand*; that is, the part on which the bird is received by the falconer; and the *end* of that bridge is the *finger*. The gallows of Odin’s shield is *the arm*, i. e. the limb on which the shield is hung. The thought, then, when stripped naked from the cumbrous disguise in which it has been so carefully muffled by its parent, is found to be, really, no bigger, nor more beautiful, than this:—*I put a ring on my finger!*

Certainly the *Solar Liod* must be luminous when brought in contrast with compositions in which hieroglyphics are forced into a monstrous union with poetry, and fancy only exerts herself to produce deformed ænigmas. The Song of Sæmundar is “the light of the Sun when he shines in his strength,” compared with such trash: but if this be the best specimen of Hyperborean poetry, we surely have reason to congratulate ourselves that we are not left to form our taste on such models.

ART. XII. *War in Disguise: or the Frauds of the Neutral Flags.*  
4vo. pp. 215. 4s. 6d. Hatchard. 1805.

WE are sorry that this pamphlet, which is of high political moment, and which is written with corresponding ability, has been mislaid on our table till so late a period of the present month, that we are compelled to take rather a hasty notice of it. Yet we are so unwilling to delay to another number our endeavours to attract attention to its contents, that we shall make the best use in our power of our remaining time and space.

The writer’s manner is such as impresses his reader with the idea that he is master of his subject, that he has well ascertained his facts, and that he has matured his reflections with care. If he be founded in his allegations, and warranted in his conclusions, a system is not only forming, but has reached its consummation, which is much more dangerous to the vital interests of Great Britain, than any effort which she has to

fear from the enmity, the activity, and the power of Bonaparte.

Many of our readers may have imagined that the plantations of our enemies have for some time been lying fallow ; that their colonial warehouses groan with produce, which the dread of capture confines within them ; or that, when committed to the ocean, it has enriched British adventurers, and increased the British revenue ; and that our foes have partaken sparingly of West India commodities, excepting such as we allowed them, and as passed through our hands. What, then, will be their surprize, when they learn from this apparently well informed author, that the hostile colonies were never more flourishing ; that their produce never flowed to the parent states in greater abundance ; that it never travelled in greater security ; that it is conveyed at a considerably cheaper rate than the equidistant and similar commodities of Great Britain ; and that it swells their revenue, animates their manufactures, and feeds their commerce with other powers, as in times of the most profound peace. We are here told, also, that a description of subjects of the British crown ensures the arrival of the precious articles of hostile colonies in the several ports of the enemy at a less premium than they will guarantee the transport of the produce of our islands into our own harbours ; and that these persons are men of high name and character, who affect prominent patriotism.

These commercial phænomena appear to owe their existence and progress to recent partial surrenders of our maritime rights, which the clamours and threats of neutrals extorted from us ; they are here indeed traced to our departure from those principles which, in past wars, we made the guides of our conduct towards states who were at peace :

‘ In the war of 1756, France, hard pressed by our maritime superiority, and unable to send the requisite supplies to her West India islands, or to bring their produce to the European market under her own mercantile flag, relaxed her colonial monopoly, and admitted neutral vessels, under certain restrictions, to carry the produce of those islands to French, or foreign ports in Europe.—During the whole of that war, the prize courts of Great Britain, regarding this new trade as unwarranted by the rights of neutrality, condemned such vessels as were captured while engaged in it, together with their cargoes ; however clearly the property of both might appear to be in those neutral merchants, on whose behalf they were claimed.

‘ As these vessels were admitted to a trade, in which, prior to the war, French bottoms only could be employed, they were considered as made French by adoption : but the substantial principle of the rule of judgment was this, “ that a neutral has no right to deliver a belligerent from the pressure of his enemy’s hostilities, by trading with his

his colonies in time of war, in a way that was prohibited in time of peace." This was the rule of the war 1756.

Conformably to this principle, the royal instruction of 1793 to commanders of ships of war and of privateers was issued, and ran thus ; " to stop and detain for lawful adjudication, all vessels laden with goods, the produce of any French colony, or carrying provisions or other supplies for the use of any such colony."

Of the rule of the war of 1756, whenever we have been called to consider it, we have, on the ground of its fairness, of its rendering the pressure of war mutual, and of its tendency to shorten its continuance, uniformly expressed our approbation. We gave very particular attention to the objections that were urged against it in the course of the last war, and we found them to be all unsubstantial. Yet the selfish cries on this subject, which succeeded to the alarms for religion, morality, and civil society, induced the British cabinet to relax from the strictness of this not less fair than safe principle. The substitute for it, which is now in operation, is to be found in the instruction of the 24th of June 1803, directed to the commanders of His Majesty's ships of war and privateers ; which suffers neutrals to trade with the colonies of our enemy, directly to or from the ports of their own respective countries, but not directly to or from any other part of the world.

This relaxation covered *bona fide* dealings between the neutral and the hostile settlement, completely relieved the colony, in fact ameliorated its situation by allowing it a free trade in the room of a monopoly, and not only dissipated the interest which it has in peace, but gave it a contrary bias. It is therefore in itself highly injurious : but this forms a very small part of the grievance arising from the concession, which has opened the door to a series of impositions unparalleled in the annals of fraud. It is under the protection of this licence that a great proportion of the bullion of South America, and that the whole of its less valuable produce, find their way into the ports of the Metropole ; and by the same channel the precious commodities of the Eastern and Western dominions of our several enemies reach in perfect safety their several ports. The magic consists in the circuitry of the voyage. An American ship takes in a lading at Martinique or Cuba, calls at an American port, gets fresh papers, changes perhaps her captain and crew, and continues her voyage to the mother country of the colony. Here she receives a lading of such articles as the colony wants : but, as she must not proceed thither directly, she first visits some port of the United States, where she is furnished with documents as for a new voyage, and she is then enabled to

reach the colony again. Thus, by these breaks in the homeward and outward voyages, intercourse is carried on between France, Spain, and Holland; and their several colonies are supplied as regularly as and more safely and cheaply than ours by similar intercourse with Great Britain. A late detection has rendered it necessary, in the neutral harbour, to adopt some farther ceremonials, (such as making a nominal transfer of the goods, and obtaining certain certificates,) in the process of the neutralization of the hostile commodities. It is now requisite to give the goods a sort of airing, at the middle place, which completely purifies them, takes away all the hostile properties, and the brave cruizer who runs every risk to serve his country dares not lay his finger on them. This operation of neutralizing (rare invention of modern chicanery!) is done at so low a rate as from two to one per cent. Moreover, as we before stated, there are philanthropists in the British metropolis who ensure the circuitous voyage and even the neutralizing process from risk; and these insurers are not suspected persons, but the institutors and conductors of patriotic funds! We fear, indeed, that the contributions, which they levy from the public, ill compensate for the loss of those harvests which our brave defenders would reap, were it not for the guarantee which they help to give to the goods of our enemy. It is here asserted that the British underwriters engage, sometimes by word of mouth, but oftener lately in writing, to call for no proofs of neutrality in case any litigation should arise between them and the assured. Can they be ignorant that they are protecting the intercourse between the enemy and his colonies; can they be unacquainted with the mischiefs which this occasions to their country; can they be unmindful of its tendency to prolong warfare? The author is willing, as every candid man must be, to think that they have given little consideration to the results of their conduct: but surely, now that they are called to reflect on them, they will abandon the illicit dealing, and, by way of atonement for their past indiscretion, will assist the public in detecting those frauds which disgrace the governments that tolerate them, and which might effect the ruin of Great Britain. It is with great propriety that the author exhorts our rulers to present strong remonstrances against these enormous abuses of neutrality, and against the immoral and dishonourable practices by which they are accomplished: but can we wonder that the covetousness of neutrals should involve them in this delinquency, when we find British subjects so ready to share in it with them? We will hope that this opprobrium to nations, that this stain on British patriotism, will not long be suffered to continue.

It now frequently happens that Americans, of slender or no visible property, have cargoes of immense value from the colonies of the enemy consigned to them, without their being able to point out any markets for which they design them. Vessels richly laden move to and from the hostile settlements in the east and west, all stated to belong to Americans, Prussians, or Danes, most of whom are persons of no consideration, and altogether unknown until the present war; and not a ship, nor an article in it, that traverses the ocean, has an avowed French, or Spanish, or Dutch owner! Ludicrous instances of this kind are mentioned by the author. A man, who at the beginning of the war was a petty shoemaker in a small town of East Friesland, had, at one time a hundred and fifty vessels navigating as his property, under Prussian colours; and merchants, who maintain not a single clerk, have come forwards as claimants of numerous cargoes, each of them worth many thousand pounds, and all destined professedly for precarious markets. The cargoes of five East Indiamen, composed of the rich exports of Batavia, were cotemporary purchases of a single house at Providence in Rhode Island! Vessels, which have cleared from the ports of North America, bring back in abundance the dollars and gold ingots of Vera Cruz and la Plata. One neutral house has contracted for all the merchandise of the Dutch East India company at Batavia, amounting in value to not less than one million seven hundred thousand pounds sterling! It is obvious that all these purchases are only ostensible, and that the pretended consignors are merely a factor; or, adverting to his principal function in this new species of commerce, he may be called a *neutralizer*.

Let us take a view of the extensive and alarming effects of these proceedings, which combine insult with fraud:

France and Holland have totally ceased to trade with their own flags, to or from the ports of any of their colonies; and have assigned the whole of these branches of their commerce to the merchants of neutral states. Spain has nearly made an entire transfer of all her trade with her colonies on the Atlantic. Even her most valuable exports have been largely entrusted to the neutral flag at Vera Cruz, Carthagena, la Plata, and other ports; while the more important commerce of the Havannah and Cuba in general has known no other protection. Of the French colonies in the Antilles, of Cayenne, Dutch Guiana, of the Isles of France and Bourbon, of Batavia, Manilla, and the other hostile Asiatic settlements, neutrals have been their only carriers; even the gum trade of Senegal has run in the same channel. *Not a single merchant ship under a flag inimical to Great Britain now crosses the equator, or traverses the Atlantic Ocean.* With the exception only of a very small portion of the coasting trade of our enemies, not

a mercantile sail of any description now enters or clears from their ports in any part of the globe, but under neutral colours.

‘The mercantile registers at Lloyd’s announce every week, and almost every day, numerous arrivals of ships in the ports of Holland and France; and it is notorious, that they are freighted for the most part with sugar, coffee, and the other rich productions of the French and Spanish West Indies. At Cadiz, at Barcelona, and the other Spanish ports, whether within or without the Mediterranean, neutral vessels are perpetually importing the sugar of the Havannah, the cocoa, indigo, and hides of South America, the dollars and ingots of Mexico and Peru; and returning with European manufactures, chiefly the rivals of our own. East India goods are imported by these commercial auxiliaries into Spain, but still more copiously into Holland and France.

‘Nor is it only in their own ports that our enemies receive the exports of America and of Asia, in contempt of our maritime efforts.—Hamburgh, Altona, Embden, Gottenburgh, Copenhagen, and Lisbon, and various other neutral markets, are supplied, and even glutted with the produce of the West Indies, and the fabrics of the East, brought from the prosperous colonies of powers hostile to this country. By the rivers and canals of Germany and Flanders they are floated into the warehouses of our enemies, or circulated for the supply of their customers in neutral countries. They supplant, or rival the British planter and merchant throughout the Continent of Europe, and on the shores of the Mediterranean. They supplant even the manufacturers of Birmingham, Manchester, and Yorkshire; for the looms and forges of Germany are put in action by the colonial produce of our enemies, and are rivalling us by the ample supplies they send, under the neutral flag to every part of the New World.

‘Antwerp is rapidly thriving under the fostering care of Bonaparte. The neutral flags operate most favourably for the rising hopes of the Scheldt. Its port has become a favourite haunt for the American West Indiamen, and profits in various ways by the sale of their cargoes.’

Having enumerated farther particulars of this enormous traffic, the author thus concludes his account of it:

‘In short, all the hostile colonies, whether Spanish, French, or Dutch, derive from the enmity of Great Britain, their antient scourge and terror, not inconvenience but advantage: far from being impoverished or distressed by our hostilities as formerly, they find in war the best sources of supply, and new means of agricultural as well as commercial prosperity.’

It is observed by the author ‘that our underwriters consent to stand between the hostilities of their country and the commerce of her disguised enemies, by giving them an honorary guarantee against the perils of capture and discovery.’ ‘For six per cent.’ he tells us, ‘the British underwriter will warrant Spanish property, knowing it to be such, from the Havannah to Spain by way of America; though he receives what is equal

to

to seven on British property of the same description, carried with convoy, and in far better bottoms, from Jamaica to London.' He farther adds; 'The proportion of this premium which may be reckoned as the price of the secret undertaking, is, I understand, one per cent.:—it is striking to reflect how small an additional premium is enough to compensate the insurer for the risk of the detection of hostile property under the neutral cover, in this commodious new-invented mode of the colonial trade.' He very properly suggests that these engagements not to inquire into the neutrality of the property; 'being void in law, ought to be prohibited under severe penalties, as well on the broker who negotiates, as on the underwriter who subscribes them.'

West India produce is conveyed from the colonies of our enemies, into the mother country, at the rate of four or five per cent. cheaper than that at which Britain is able to bring home her own; *it also sells clear of duties at a lower price in their ports than in ours.*

The author shews that our enemies' effectually secure the duties under the present mode of managing their colonial traffic. Without maintaining squadrons to defend their colonial ports, without sending detachments on the convoy service, without having occasion to disperse their fleets,—by the aid of the neutrals, and the gentlemen at Lloyd's, our enemies are here said to carry on their colonial concerns to as much advantage as Great Britain, (if not more,) who bears enormous expence in supporting squadrons to protect her colonies, to act as convoys, and to secure her pre-eminence at sea.

This neutral navigation, it is remarked, enables Bonaparte to render his marine wholly military, and to employ all his seamen in ships of war: a fact which appears in the continually increasing number of the enemy's privateers, which already far exceed those of any former period. It is moreover stated that this new practice has occasioned desertion among our seamen, who have in great numbers entered into the American service; and that it takes away the strongest stimulus for the manning of our navy, namely the prospect of prizes:

'Our sailors (says the author,) see the same valuable cargoes passing continually under their stern, which used formerly to make the fortunes of the captors; but the ensigns of neutrality now wave over them all, and prohibit a seizure: if a hostile island is taken, the neutral flag alone is hoisted in its harbour, there is no property afloat but what is neutral. The languid service of the West Indies is no longer enlivened by the prospect of capture; our brave defenders meet no enemy worthy of their valour; their only foes are the fever and the neutral flag: nearer home their situation is no less singular or discouraging. The Mediterranean, the Bay of Biscay, the Channel,

the German Ocean, are covered with the exports of Spain, Holland, and France, and their colonies, and with shipping bound to their ports; but where are the prizes of war? Our cruisers search for them in vain, even on the hostile coasts; even there vessels, impudently called neutral, conduct, for the most part, the coasting trade.'

The author next enters into a very curious detail of the arts used, and the methods taken, to oblige the courts to decide against the captors, where no doubt is entertained of the captures being lawful prizes: but on this point we have not room to enlarge.

It is impossible, the writer contends, that matters should long remain in their present state. Shall we copy the example of our enemies, and abandon the carrying trade to neutrals; or enter into an agreement with our foes not to extend hostility to traffic; or make peace with Bonaparte? The first measure, he judges, we are by no means likely to adopt; to the second, he thinks that our great enemy would not give his consent; and he is of opinion that we cannot ever live in real amity with the ruler of France. If he should make a treaty with us, 'he will never make peace while our free constitution exists, and while our press remains unshackled.' We have, then, according to the author, no alternative to which we can recur, but 'the rule of the war of 1756.' He is not an advocate for enforcing this rule in its utmost rigour: but he thinks that it safely may and that it ought to be in a degree qualified. He is disposed 'to allow the Americans to import their native provisions and lumber in their own vessels, into the hostile colonies, and to receive in return those inferior articles of colonial produce, rum, taffia, and molasses;' and he adds 'that we might permit all neutral nations to hold an intercourse of the same species, and subject to similar restrictions with the colonies of Spain and Holland.' Our space will not allow us to state the satisfactory considerations on which he grounds this qualification. He shews it to be highly improbable that our exercise of our maritime rights, as a belligerent, would occasion neutral nations to join in the war against us: but were this the sad result, he maintains that it would be infinitely preferable to that of sitting down quietly under the impositions that are practised on us.

We can now only conclude by recommending this very able pamphlet to our readers, as deserving serious attention from all persons who wish to be acquainted with the real situation of their country, and who have its welfare at heart.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1805.

HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, &amp;c.

**Art. 13.** *The History of the Honourable Artillery Company, of the City of London, from its earliest Annals to the Peace of 1802.* By Anthony Highmore, Solicitor. Member of the South East Division of the Company. 8vo. 12s. 6d. Boards. White.

**T**HIS author is desirous to trace a connection between the Artillery Company as now constituted, and those armed associations which belonged to times when the military and civil occupations were more blended than they are at present. The spirit which excited them, and the purposes for which the one and the other were formed, were (we doubt not) very much the same: but, as to any farther relation between them, we own that we are not able to discover it. In the Saxon times, the citizens were probably obliged in virtue of their tenure to exercise arms, and this was unquestionably the case under the Conqueror. In the reign of King Stephen, the city force was so considerable as to amount to 20,000 horse, and 60,000 foot; and it appears that arms were very much in vogue among the citizens in the time of Henry III.

Of the subsequent progress of this spirit, until the period of the incorporation of the present Company, Mr. Highmore gives this summary account.

‘The use of Archery having been much discontinued, King Edward III. in the year 1365, sent a letter to the sheriffs of London, recommending to them to revive the practice, and commanding that “in places as well within the liberties as without, they should cause proclamation to be made, that every one of the said city, strong in body, at leisure times or holidays, use in their recreation bows and arrows, or pelets or bolts, and learn and exercise the art of shooting,” &c.

‘The practice of Archery was thus recovered from its decline, and continued for many years to form a part, not only of the elegant pastime of the gentleman, but also of the national defence; for at the close of the reign of Henry VII., anno 1497, it had acquired so high an estimation, in the metropolis, that all the gardens which had continued (says Hollingshed, Vol. III. 785.) “time out of mind without Moorgate, were destroyed, and of them was made a plaine field for archers to shoot in.” Stowe and Chamberlain corroborate this circumstance, and speak of them as the gardens and orchards about Chiswell Street and Finsbury.

‘This measure arose from the alarm which had spread throughout the country, and particularly in the metropolis, from a revolt which had recently broke out in Cornwall, and threatened London with an immediate and serious attack: the danger suggested the propriety of establishing a more regular body of defence for the city; and of appropriating some beautiful gardens in the manor of Finsbury, to the north of Chiswell Street, for a walled inclosure for the city archers and trained bands, which was then denominated the Artillery ground.

‘The

The name of the manor of Finsbury has had various derivations, but what may seem most probable to have been correct, corresponds with the account which the writers on that part of the metropolis are agreed in; that the land there being fenny and swampy, had a running water passing through it to the city, and that therefore *Fin* is a corruption of *Fensbury*, agreeing with *Moor* or *Mere* land, which was granted by William the Conqueror to the church of St. Martin's Le Grand.

Henry VIII. who had from early life practised the use of all the manly and athletic exercises, particularly that of the Bow, found, upon his accession in 1509, the citizens of London well disposed towards the encouragement and discipline of one of his favourite pursuits; and as its use was of far more importance to his government than to his amusement, he gave them every sanction which could be derived from his presence and practice.

They extended their exercises over the fields near Islington, Hoxton, and Shoreditch, and were accustomed to fix buts and targets there to shoot at: but as the inhabitants of those villages increased in number, they inclosed their grounds, which had been common field, and thereby prevented the practice of archery; this produced a serious contest, amounting, according to Grafton's Chronicle, to an insurrection, in 5 Henry VIII. anno 1514, in which the citizens practising archery, tenacious of what they had long enjoyed as a right, assembled and destroyed all the fences.

It was natural to suppose that Henry would not overlook a passion among his citizens of London, which he might be enabled to convert to very useful purposes; he therefore, in the 28th year of his reign, anno 1537, when he had seen them matured in the practice, and well disciplined in the service, granted them a patent of incorporation.

The charter invests the Artillery Company with the usual corporate rights; gives them the power of chusing their own officers and members; exempts them from the operation of certain sumptuary laws then in being, from serving on juries, and from legal process in the case of unavoidable accidents occasioned by their exercises: the Company is endowed with every reasonable privilege; and the whole is drawn up in a style which shews the predilection of the monarch for the institution. The Company has ever since been protected and countenanced by the sovereigns of this realm; and the author is of opinion that this patronage has had the best effect on the spirit and disposition of the metropolis.

This corps appears, on most occasions, either to have given the tone to or to have shared in the prevailing temper of the city of London; it sided with Parliament in the opposition which was so honourable in its commencement, but so unfortunate in the result, made by that body to the inroads committed by Charles I. on the rights and liberties of his subjects; it readily shook off its allegiance to its Captain-General James II.; was uniformly loyal to King William; and has ever distinguished itself by its attachment to the Protestant succession. It temporized under Charles and James; it seems to have been but for a short period on the popular side in the present

sent reign; and its principal members at this moment have more the reputation of dutiful courtiers than of sturdy citizens.

Exclusive of the facts borrowed from the history of the country, and interwoven with this narrative, the present volume would have been comprized within very moderate limits: for we learn that, during the dissensions between Charles I. and his Parliament, the records of the Company were destroyed; and that the first court-book now existing is not of an earlier date than 1656.

**Art. 14.** *The Historie and Life of King James the Sext.* Written towards the latter Part of the Sixteenth Century. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We are informed, in the preface to this volume, that in the *Memoirs of the Affairs of Scotland* by David Crawford, which were published in 1706, references occur to a MS., in support of certain positions, which includes nothing that in the least countenances them. The contents of that MS. constitute the present volume. The editor states that

‘The discovery of it affords a complete detection of the earliest, if not the most impudent literary forgery ever practised in Scotland. Every circumstance in the MS., unfavourable either to Mary or to Bothwell, or favourable to their adversaries, is carefully suppressed: every vague allegation in Camden, Spottiswood, Melvill, and others, or in the State Papers which Crawford had transcribed from the Cotton MS. is inserted in the *Memoirs*; and these writers are quoted on the margin as collateral authorities, confirming the evidence of some unknown contemporary. Fictions, invented by Crawford himself, are profusely intermixed; and even the ill-digested form of the genuine narrative is a pretext for the transposition and alteration of facts. The historiographer for Scotland, having thus, on the narrow basis of the original MS., constructed spurious memoirs of his own, “declares solemnly that he has not wrested any of the words, to add to one man’s credit, or to impair the honesty of another; that he has neither heightened nor diminished any particular character or action: but that he has kept as close as possible to the meaning and sense of his author;” and even his title-page professes that the work is “faithfully published from an authentic manuscript.” The memoirs have been quoted as genuine by Hume and Robertson: and their authority has been re-echoed by disputants as a full confirmation of the most absolute fictions. Nor is it possible to acquit Goodall of connivance at the fraud: he had collated the memoirs with two copies of the original MS., and was conscious of the imposture, which, in the preface to the second edition, he endeavours partly to vindicate, and partly to conceal.’—

• The authorities fabricated by Hector Boethius, Chalmers of Ormond, and Dempster, are sufficiently known: but Crawford, perhaps, was the first Scotchman who published his own compositions as the genuine productions of a former age. The present example, however, ought to convince those who persist in the practice of literary forgery, that the most successful fabrication can give them no assurance whatsoever of impunity, and that no length of time can secure them from detection.’

The

The work itself inspires an interest which a contemporaneous record hardly ever fails to create; it carries us back to the very period, we enter into its feelings, and become acquainted with its prejudices and its habits of thinking; an effect which is not diminished, but heightened, by the antiquated dialect and obsolete orthography of the performance. We shall insert one or two of those passages which the editor regards as conclusive against the favourers of the abandoned and unfortunate Queen.

After having described the baptism of James, afterward King of England, the author thus proceeds:

Nather did King Henrie cum thair, albeit he was in Striviling all that quhyll, nather was he permittit or requyrit to cum oppinly: and thairfore he address himselfe to Glasgow, quhair he became extreme seik, and his haill bodey brak out in euill fauourit pustullis, be the force of young age that pottently expellit the poyson quhilk was given him to haist the end of his dayes. Sa that the Queene, whither it was for pittie or hypocresie (I will not dispute) tuik iorney toward him to Glasgow, & remaint by him by the space of ten dayes, & causit him to be transportit to Edinburgh, quhair he was placit in a desert ludging near the wall & faulxburg of the town, callit the kirk of feild, preparit for a wicked intent, as the malicious actors permitit it with their pestilent handis, perceiving that the poyson quhilk they hade given him did tak na effect, devysit this uther purpose. To lay trains of gwn powder, about and within the wallis of the hous in great quantity. Bot first they come in be slight of false keyis quietlie to the King's chalmer, quhair he was reposing in bed, & his servand sleeping nar by. First they stranglit the King, & nixt his servand. They kaist thair dead bodies out in a desert zaird by a back dore, quhilk they had prepared before, sitt for the purpose, and then kendlit thair traine of gwn powder quhilk inflamit the timber of the haill hous in sic sort, and troublit sa the wallis thair of, that gret stanes, of the lenth of ten fute, and of breid five fute, were fund distant from that hous be the space of a quarter of a myll. This was devysit to deceaue the people, to make them believe that the hous & bodies was expellit & demolisht be the chance of suddaine fire, & na uther wayes: Bot Bothwell and his men were sein neare hand by, to the end the wicket purpose should not fail to tak effect, as by progres of this historie shall the better be knowin.—

Then Bothwell, thinking thair was na contrauersie againes him in Scotland, conveint the number of aucht hundreche horsemen, & as the Queene was cumand from the castell of Striviling, to have returnit to Edinburgh, he met hir in the hie way, & convoyit hir perforce (as appeit) to the castell of Dunbarr, to the end he might enioy hir as his laifull spous; & in the meane tyme causit devorcement to be led & separation proceed betuixt him & his awin marriet lawful wyfe, the Ladie Jeane Gordown, than sister to George Earl of Huntlye. The freindlie liute was so heighlie contractit betuixt this great princes toward hir enorme subiect, that thair was no end thair of; for it was constantly estimit be all man, that ather of them loued uther carnally. Sa that shoe sufferit himself patiently to be led quhair the lover list, and all the way nather maid obstacle, impediment,

ment, clamor, or resistance, as in sic accidentis uses to be, or that shoe might haue done be hir princely auctoritie, being accompanyit with the noble Earle of Huntlie, & Secretar Maitland of Lethington. They had scarcely remainit be the space of ten dayes in the castell of Dumbarr, & na great distance being betwix the Queenis chalmer and Bothwellis, quhen they thought expedient to cum to Edinburgh eastell, and, be the way, to shaw hirselff to the people that Bothwell was ready to put hir to libertie againe, according to the dewtie of ane obedient subiect. Bot at the streit entrie of the toun that leadis to the Castell, he maid semblance to lead her brydle; and sensibill people interpret the same as though he convoyit hir Maiestie as his captive to a castell, quhairin a substitute of his was, callit Sr James Balfour. Immediatele thairafter, they were proclamit in several kirkis to be mariet, and a certane day prefixt to that purpose. And to the effect shoe should not seeme to receave to hir husbaud a man that was not in the rowme of a prince, he was creat Duce of Orknay and Zetland with great magnificence, & upoun the 15 of Maij were mariet togidder. The same day was a pamphlet affixt upoun the palice port,

*Mense malas Maio nubere vulgus ait.*

Did the general voice of history on these points need any farther confirmation, it must be owned that we have a testimony here of no small weight to corroborate it. The above statement of the guilt of Mary leaves no doubt as to the opinion of this cotemporary author; who, there is reason to presume, was of the same religion with his Royal Mistress, attached to her cause, and hostile to that of her enemies.—If this writer bears hard on the motives of the Queen's opponents, he never appears to withhold or misrepresent facts, nor in any way to violate historic truth; he takes no pains to conceal his bias, but we are persuaded that it never led him wilfully to falsify his narrative; he cherished his prejudices, but he seems to have been sensible of the obligations imposed on an historian to adhere to truth.

Art. 15. *The Life of the much lamented Vice Admiral Lord Viscount Nelson, K.B., &c.* 8vo. 1s. Printed at Manchester. Bickerstaff, London.

A tolerably satisfactory sketch of the principal features in the life and death of this really great warrior; though, as the writer acknowledges, it has been 'hastily conceived, hastily written, and hastily printed, to meet the patriotic feelings of the day.' A portrait is prefixed.

#### MEDICAL.

Art. 16. *Tracts and Observations on the salutary Treatment of Infants, not strictly Medical; comprehending a new System in Discipline and Management, during the Period of infantile Life, &c. &c.* By Robert Bath, King Street, Portman Square. 8vo. pp. 164. 5s. Boards. Cawthorn. 1805.

The title of this work informs us that its contents are principally intended for the use of mothers; a circumstance which it is necessary to

to bear in mind during our examination of its merits. A performance which is destined for popular use should be perspicuous in its plan and arrangement; the principles which it lays down should be such as are easily understood, and generally recognized; and its style should be simple and unaffected. We shall afford our readers an opportunity of judging how far these characters are applicable to the present volume. It commences with an address to mothers, in which, after having stated that females, from their natural constitution, are more easily impressed with tender feelings than males, the author attempts to prove that they are fully competent to the acquisition of all the knowledge which is necessary for the education and nurture of their offspring. He even asserts that they are better suited to the attainment of this object than the other sex; and he maintains that, in almost every instance, the female capacity is equal if not superior to the male. His opinion is supported and illustrated in the latter part of his address; and our readers may form some idea of the style of this performance from one passage:

‘I have endeavoured to exhibit what I have mostly found, in the experience of professional life of long continuance, that in the great number of instances, indeed in all, except those few, where organic nature is bad, or defectively formed—and such deviations are few—that the female parent is by far the best endowed with faculties, from observance and attendance, to ascertain the want and appoint the treatment, both regiminal and disciplinary, and with the reference to, and assistance of, medical minds, to very correct and judicious appointments, from the very valuable observation and experience of such men as have delight and pleasure in communicating the fruits of them; and that they may, like great and accomplished historians and poets, to be ever instanced, travel through the intricacies of life, with other people’s minds to guide and enlighten them.’

From the address, we proceed to an introduction; the main design of which is to persuade the author’s fair friends to acquire all possible knowledge respecting the diseases and constitutions of their children; certainly a most laudable object, and infinitely preferable to those in which we fear too many mothers spend a large portion of their time. Yet we confess that we still entertain that kind of respect for the masculine gender, that we think that the most learned lady might occasionally be benefited by the advice of a respectable practitioner, even after she may have had her mind illuminated by Mr. Bath’s observations.

The points, on which the author principally dwells, *appear to us* to be the importance of evacuating the bowels, the recommendation of warm clothing, (particularly flannel next to the skin,) the disadvantages that ensue from letting children remain too long at the breast, with the benefit derived from using friction of various kinds, frequently washing the skin, and giving a sufficiency of nutritious diet. These, we say, *appear to us* to be the circumstances principally urged; for it is not an easy matter to deduce the author’s meaning from beneath the load of words with which it is encumbered. We have given a specimen of his composition, and we have not selected it as being peculiarly over-

overcharged\*: we shall now copy the beginning of his observations, as affording a sample of his philosophy :

‘ Nothing disposes so much to diminish the difficulties of advancing, in the progress of human attainments, in branches of the higher and more complicated walks of science and knowledge, as the concentrating it, by generic simplification—or, to be excused for using a periphrasis, which is a little debased by frequency, and vulgar expression—to *generalise* and *simplify*: and, it is also as evident, that the more correctly and perfectly we do know, into the less compass, and into the fewer rules, we can reduce its essence and principles: and, to be still more distinct; to every degree of mental comprehension, we can more readily, more easily, and more effectually, be understood; and, in the instance we have now to offer, and submit, what we have to say upon this subject, we hope and presume, the more readily embraced and followed.’

Though the greatest part of the doctrines laid down in this work appear to be altogether common-place, yet occasionally the author attempts originality in his ideas, as well as in his style. He supposes that, when flannel is worn next to the skin, the friction which takes place produces the extrication of the electric fluid; which is dignified by the title of the 5th element, and is conceived to possess some wonderful virtues in the animal economy. The nutritive power of oysters is supposed to depend on their containing a quantity of ‘the phosphoric principle;’ and sponge, when used for washing the body, is imagined to have some specific virtues, in consequence of its being of an animal nature. These, we apprehend, will be deemed a sufficient specimen of Mr. Bath’s speculations; indeed, we beg pardon of our readers for having so long detained them on a mass of “*words, words, words*,”—a mere display of superficialness and affectation.

Art. 17. *A Medical Guide for the Invalid to the principal Watering Places of Great Britain*; containing a View of the Medical Effects of Water. 1. As applied to the Body in its simple State. 2. As exhibited in its impregnated or Mineral Form. 3. As employed in this Form for the Cure of particular Diseases, with their Modes of Treatment, and 4. As assisted in its Effects by the Situation and Climate of the Watering-places resorted to. By William Nisbet, M.D. 12mo. pp. 295. 5s. 6d. Boards. Highley.

This work professes to give a popular view of the effects produced by the different mineral waters that are employed in this country for medicinal purposes: in order to enable every one so far to judge of their nature, as to prevent him from injuring himself by their improper application. To accomplish this object, the author begins by taking a view of water in its simple state, with its effects on the body, either employed as an article of diet, or administered as a remedy for disease; and he next makes some remarks on its external application, in the form of bathing, fomentation, or vapor.

\* At p. 161—163. we observe a single sentence consisting of 35 lines, broken only by a superabundance of commas, and one semicolon! Mr. Bath’s readers must at least be free from any defective organization of the lungs.

In

In the second part, the effects of waters impregnated with some foreign ingredients are discussed ; with a short account of each of the mineral springs in this country which have become celebrated for their medicinal virtues. They are divided into the acidulous, saline, sulphureous, and chalybeate ; a classification which, though not capable of being applied with much accuracy, may be allowed in a popular work like the present. The author gives the following tests, by which the predominant qualities of any mineral water may be detected :

1. The first division, or acidulous waters, are detected by an infusion of turnsole, which turns the water red, and afterwards, when boiled, returns it to blue, or by paper stained in turnsole, which is reddened when wet, but becomes blue when dry.

2. Saline waters are discovered by turning syrup of violets green, which thus shews the presence of an alkali, and calcareous earth is detected by a solution of lead in nitrous acid, which the water immediately precipitates, so as to produce a muddiness.

3. Sulphureous waters are known by turning infusion of turnsole red, and by blackening polished metals.

4. Chalybeate waters are distinguished by blackening infusion of galls, and the dissolving acid is ascertained by observing whether it produces its effect before or after boiling.

It must be obvious to every one who has paid any degree of attention to the analysis of mineral waters, that these directions will not bear to be minutely criticized. Many medicinal waters contain more than one class of ingredients ; and of those which are the most properly called saline, we believe that the generality would not shew any predominance of alkali. Dr. Nisbet himself informs us that the salts most commonly found in what he calls saline waters are ' the Epsom salt, the marine salt, and calcareous and magnesium muriates.'

Part III. consists of the 'history and treatment of diseases which require the use of mineral waters.' It is remarked that the diseases, to which the use of the mineral waters is applicable, are principally of the chronic kind ; and they are arranged under the three heads of nervous complaints, affections of some particular organs, and diseases of the skin, of each of which a short account is given. The observations are such as may, for the most part, be admitted, consisting almost entirely of very obvious and common-place remarks : but, occasionally, the author soars beyond his usual track, and either aims at originality or assumes a more decisive tone. He professes to propose a new method for curing palsy by means of the hot bath ; and taking it for granted that absorption is carried on by the skin, he advises that the bath should be medicated. He imagines that the benefit obtained by the employment of the Bath waters in gout arises from their containing azotic gas ; and he recommends that an attempt should be made 'to give still greater relief by preferring another mineral, which contains a still greater proportion of this matter, and increasing its temperature to that of the Bath mineral.' Hæmoptysis is supposed always to depend on scrofula, and scrofula is thought to be produced by a deficiency of salt in the fluids.—Although the general tenor of this performance is sufficiently uninteresting, probably our readers will think

think that Dr. Nisbet's original speculations are not the most valuable part of the work.

Art. 18. *A General Dictionary of Chemistry*, containing the leading Principles of the Science, in regard to Facts, Experiments, and Nomenclature. For the Use of Students. By William Nisbet, M. D. 12mo. pp. 415. 8s. Boards. Highley. 1805.

When we are presented with a duodecimo volume which is intitled 'a general Dictionary of Chemistry,' and which professes to contain 'the general principles of the science, and to enumerate all its leading facts and experiments,' we are at first inclined to think that we have met with a great bargain: but there is some danger lest we should be disappointed in such cases, and should find that the article, like Hodge's razors, was made to *sell* and not to be useful. We acknowledge, however, that a duodecimo volume closely printed may contain a great deal of information; and that such a performance as the one now under examination, if the matter be accurate and well selected, may be of some value.

With respect to the accuracy with which the work is executed; we shall present our readers with some remarks on a few pages at the commencement, by which they may judge of the rest. In the article '*Acetic Acid*,' we are informed that Gren and Adet conceive that the acetous and acetic acids differ merely in their degree of concentration, not in the proportion of their principles: but that Chaptal and Dabit have endeavoured to prove that they are essentially different in their constitution. Here the reader is left, without being apprized that more lately Darracq and Proust have supported the opinion of Gren and Adet, by experiments which are generally deemed conclusive.—The acids are divided into mineral, vegetable, and animal; according to the substances from which they are procured. We observe in these classes several inaccuracies; in the first division, the arsenical and other metallic acids are not mentioned; among the vegetable acids, we have pyro-tartarous and pyro-mucous acids inserted, though it is proved that they have no title to the denomination; while the carbonic acid is unaccountably omitted. In the class of animal acids, the saccharic is omitted, while the formic and zoonic are retained, though the last two are found to be only compounds of acetic acid. The author confidently adopts, in its fullest extent, the hypothesis respecting the oxygenation of the system by acids taken into the stomach: but we can neither admit the plausibility of the speculation, nor the force of the facts on which it is founded.—It is also stated in a subsequent article, as if it were a point decidedly proved, that alkalis are compounds of hydrogen and azote.

In speaking of the proportion in which the ingredients of the atmosphere exist, under the head of '*Air*,' the author adopts the old idea that oxygen composes 27 parts in 100; while under the article '*Atmosphere*,' we are told that the oxygen composes only 22 parts in the 100. We are also informed that the atmosphere has a different proportion of oxygen at different heights above the surface; an assertion which we believe is absolutely contradictory to the most accurate experiments. Lastly, '*Alum*' is said to be the sulphate of argill; and in giving the analysis of this body, no mention is made of the alkali, which es-

entially enters into its composition.—These errors are certainly not unimportant ; and it must very seriously diminish the value of a work in which so little is said, if it be found that this little is not correct.

With regard to the selection of matter, we fear that we cannot say much more in praise than on the score of accuracy ; for the objections in point of deficiency are very numerous. Among many others that might be specified, the reader will in vain look for *adipocire, hydro-carbone, olefient gas, ochres, palladium, pewter, pumice, and oxymuriatic acid*—After these remarks, our opinion of this volume will be inferred to be unfavorable : but we must add that the account of the metals is, for the most part, fairly executed ; and that under the word '*Galvanism*', is contained an amusing sketch of that science.

Art. 19. *An Account of the Neutral Saline Waters recently discovered at Hampstead*, with Chemical Experiments on their component Parts, Observations on their Medicinal Application and Effects in certain Diseases ; and on the different Modes of Bathing, as an Auxiliary to the drinking of Mineral Waters. By Thomas Goodwin, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, in London. 12mo. pp. 113. 3s. 6d. Murray. 1804.

The author of this volume, who appears from some passages in the work to be an apothecary at Hampstead, has undertaken to point out the virtues of a saline spring which has been lately discovered in that village. His motive for this recommendation seems natural ; and we could not blame him for endeavouring, by fair arguments, to prove to the public that they may derive as much benefit by placing themselves under his care, at Hampstead, as by taking a longer journey to obtain the same relief elsewhere. He states however that, in publishing this treatise, he was influenced by philanthropy and benevolence ; and that he pursued his object 'at considerable expence, disregarding his own immediate interest, from the desire of being useful to others.'

After some observations on the advantages which may be expected to ensue from the employment of mineral waters, Mr. Goodwin is 'impelled,' as he says, 'by coercive example,' to enter on a description of Hampstead and its environs. Here he throws off the professional air, and assumes the sentimental style. He quotes Armstrong, and talks about 'the elegant master of descriptive imagery, who informed the page with music, sentiment, and thought, and poured the whole luxuriance of nature into his inimitable seasons.' He also ingeniously paraphrases mineral waters, by the style and title of 'aqueous compounds of nature ;' and he informs us that the pastures about Hampstead are filled with cattle, 'roving and grazing,' so as to produce in the mind of the spectators 'a gratifying, social and rural impression.' This part of the work is furnished with a profusion of learned notes ; giving an account of the atmosphere, the nature of contagious effluvia, the effects of respiration, the action of the winds, &c. &c. We are, however, concerned to observe that they abound with inaccuracies ; so much so, that to point out all their errors would carry us to a length greater than that of the original. We shall merely notice the author's opinion respecting contagion ; he supposes it to depend on an acid principle diffused through the air ;  
which

which may be the most efficaciously corrected by alkaline vapors. We admire the intrepidity of Mr. Goodwin, in thus boldly proposing his sentiments, unawed by the experiments of Guyton and Smyth; or by the sanction of the British parliament, who, as is well known, voted to the latter gentleman a considerable reward for employing a directly contrary practice.

In the chemical part, the author properly begins by an examination of the stratum from which the spring issues, and then proceeds to analyze the waters themselves. He gives a detail of the experiments which were performed: but we confess that we are not by any means thoroughly satisfied respecting the justness of the conclusions drawn from them. We do not see the grounds on which Mr. G. has fixed the quantities of the different ingredients that he specifies; and we doubt whether he is authorized to admit even the existence of some of them. However, it appears pretty evident that a principal ingredient is the sulphate of magnesia; and to this salt the water probably owes such virtues as it may possess.

Besides the extraneous and ornamental matter which we have already noted, Mr. G. has given at some length the directions issued by the Humane Society; because there are some ponds at Hampstead, in which persons may be drowned! We have also a full account of the effects of bathing in its different varieties, because baths might be formed at Hampstead with the water of the mineral spring;—and, lastly, we have a complete detail of the rules and regulations of a benefit club at Hampstead, because Mr. Goodwin is the surgeon and apothecary thereof!

## P O E T R Y.

Art. 20. *Fatal Curiosity, or the Vision of Silvester*, a Poem in three Books. By Joseph Bouneden. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1805.

"*Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise*," is the moral of this poem; which is written by a young man, to exemplify the impossibility of supporting life under those anticipations which would arise from a knowledge of future events. Silvester, the hero of the poem, is rich and happy with a beautiful wife and five children: but he is anxious to be acquainted with their destiny, and discloses his wish to his guardian spirit who appears to him in a dream. The Genius, after having vainly endeavoured to convince him of his imprudence in desiring to know that which for wise purposes Providence has concealed, at last accedes to his request, and in consequence the following information is afforded:

"Silvester perceives his wife mourning over his corpse, filled with grief and horror. Time assuages her affliction, and she bestows her hand on a favored suitor. His agony on that account. He sees some of his favourite friends plotting to defraud his children. They are prevented by disagreement among themselves. His four sons appear in the pride of manhood. Edward mourns under a long and raging sickness. He is restored to health; blest with a wife and child; in the midst of happiness and tranquillity. The joy occasioned by that sight to Silvester is suddenly overthrown by the appearance

of John, holding midnight conferences with a gang of ruffians, plotting to destroy their king, and the laws and government of their country. He unfolds the plot to Edward, and invites him to assist in its execution. Edward refuses: and John, to prevent his discovering the traiterous conspiracy, instantly murders him: then returns to his companions; harangues them, and urges the immediate execution of their determined purpose; from which they are prevented by the arrival of an armed force, by whom they are conveyed to prison; and Silvester sees his son receive the punishment of treason, a public, ignominious, and horrid death. He beholds Charles seduced into a life of vicious pleasure. His gradual progress to the worst of the vices of libertinism; ruining the innocent without remorse, and deriding the aged. Smitten by compunction, he seeks his abandoned home. He laments his loss of pure delights; 'till, unable to bear the reproaches of his conscience, he finishes his career by suicide. Henry appears; a virtuous deserving youth. He is enamoured of a lovely accomplished damsel; but when on the point of receiving her hand, he is torn from her by a powerful rival, who accuses him of crimes never committed, or imagined by him. He is sentenced to banishment, and expires there. Last of all his offspring, his daughter appears. He is ravished at the sight. An honourable suitor obtains her hand; but soon after marriage she falls a victim to the arts of a designing villain. Is detected by her lord, dismissed his presence, and forced to seek support in a life of dishonour; which she terminates by a premature death, in the midst of poverty and disease; and her mother soon after dies of a broken heart. But her children, by her second lord, are as happy and fortunate as Silvester wished his. This fills him with anguish: and in the act of complaining of the injustice and partiality of heaven, he awakes.'

Silvester is of course in an agony of grief, on having obtained his request; he inveighs against heaven, is disgusted with his wife, and shocked by the sight of his children. Nothing affords him pleasure; and, overwhelmed with anguish and remorse, he terminates his life by suicide.

Such is the plan of this poem, which strikingly illustrates the design of the author: but his numbers are not equal to his imagination. His lines are often tame and prosaic; and we think that, had he suffered it to remain in a bureau, and had corrected it when his taste was improved, the composition might have appeared before the public with more advantage than it does in its present state. As a specimen, we give the conclusion:

Thus then, at most,  
 Few years or months stand between me and Fate.  
 And in that space what must I not endure;  
 And what can I enjoy!—yes, Wretch, thy Wife  
 Survives, united to a happier Man.  
 Her Children by that prosperous union blest,  
 While thine—what am I, then, but dead already:  
 Dead by Fore-knowledge; dead by certainty  
 Of still accumulating boundless Woe.

My thoughts are worse than Death ! 'tis not in Man  
 Long to support the pains I suffer now,  
 And I will not—I cannot if I would  
 Life's hopeless burthen bear.—Here, where my CHARLES  
 Is destin'd, I will end it.—By his path  
 The River flow'd—he rush'd into the stream ;  
 That stream the beauty of his fair Domain,  
 So often seen with calm delight, so oft  
 Witness of Love and of parental Joy.  
 He struggled, gasp'd ; sunk, rose ;—sunk, and expired.  
 Sunk to await that dread Futurity  
 The Vision left conceal'd. The Vision's bounds  
 To this brief Life confined !—Thus he expired :  
 Unequal to the scanty picture here,  
 Tablet of transient Good and fleeting Ill ;  
 Reckless of the Eternity unknown :  
 Strange and tremendous proof how mad the wish  
 So oft by Man exprest, to know the END  
 Destin'd by his CREATOR : who alone  
 Foresees the SUM of THINGS ; and who alone,  
 —As inaccessible to pain or ill,  
 And knowing all is WISE, and JUST, and GOOD,  
 Which he hath will'd,—FORE KNOWLEDGE should  
 possess.'

Whatever may be the *curiosity* of individuals to acquire this ' fore-  
 knowledge,' we see no reason for supposing that they will be grati-  
 fied, and therefore little occasion for warning them of the dangers of  
 such an attainment.

Art. 21. *Alfred*; an Epic Poem in 24 Books. By Joseph Cottle.  
 Second Edition. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 9s. Boards. Longman  
 and Co. 1804.

Though we do not, in general, notice second editions of works  
 which have been formerly reviewed, our attention to the present ar-  
 ticle has been solicited by a new preface ; in which Mr. Cottle an-  
 nounces that he has made considerable alterations in his poem. He  
 has also endeavoured to defend his work against the criticisms which  
 it has undergone ; and we perceive that the opinion which we have  
 given has not had the good fortune to please him. As far as our re-  
 marks are concerned in Mr. Cottle's preface, we confess that we  
 deem him unsuccessful in his reply ; particularly when he supposes  
 that we object to simplicity of style. We have said, and we repeat  
 it, that some modern writers do not distinguish between simplicity  
 and meanness ; we have therefore endeavoured to expose that low  
 style of writing, which we observe inculcated both in prose and verse ;  
 and which we conceive to proceed from the antipodes of good taste  
 and true genius. When the perversion of poetry is openly paro-  
 dized, it becomes the duty of critics to resist the impulse. We have  
 opposed the absurd fondness for German plays, with success ; and  
 we shall continue to withstand the barbarous innovators, who are  
 attempting to despoil poetry of her fairest and richest ornaments, and

to reduce her to the beggarly state of a ballad-singer, or a Sternholdian rhymers.

With regard to Mr. Cottle's alterations, we do not perceive great improvement in his poetical style. Much might be said on this subject: but we are deterred by a hint which he has dropped towards the end of his preface. We shall therefore content ourselves with wishing him success in the sale of his book, though we cannot sacrifice the *canon laws of our foundation* to promote his interest.

Art. 22. *The Battle of Trafalgar.* Stanzas, by the Rev. James Beresford. A.M., Fellow of Merton College, Oxford. To which is added Nelson's Last Victory: a Song. By a Friend. 4to. 1s. Hatchard.

Every muse will be alert on this occasion: but every muse is not equal to so noble a subject. We will not say of Mr. Beresford, *Magnis tamen excidit ausis*; though we must observe that his poetic execution has not been equal to his patriotic enthusiasm. He transports us to the scene of action, and endeavours to give an appropriate description of the well-conducted and well-fought battle of Trafalgar; and he has discovered some address in changing the metre from the heroic to the elegiac, when he introduces the death of the glorious hero of that ever memorable day. His language, however, is not sufficiently elevated; nor are his epithets always happily chosen. It is surely beneath the dignity of the subject to say of Nelson that

'He rul'd the riot with his nod;'

that 'he *plagues* in fight'; that 'he *craz'd* the hopes of the enemy, and 'cow'd his war.' Mr. B. probably meant, by calling the Spanish ship *Santissima Trinidad*, 'an audacious name' to condemn the presumptuous impiety of giving such an appellation to a vessel of war; but a better epithet might have been chosen, and the censure might have been more pointedly conveyed. As the subject, however, is deservedly popular, we shall copy a few of his stanzas:

'To Britain's sacred signal true  
All stood—and bolder rose the bold;  
From heart to heart the madness flew,  
And ev'ry flash in ruin told.

'Then England knew her godlike Son!—  
Calm, through the hurtling rage he trod,  
And stay'd, or set the havoc on,  
And rul'd the riot with his nod.

'Their proudest, of colossal frame,  
He sever'd for his own—and swore  
To silence *that audacious name*—  
His Genius once rebuk'd before.

'The Monster-ship, with grappling close,  
*He plagues*—he storms—he stuns in fight.—

'• Santissima Trinidad.'

Thus

- Thus David on Goliath rose ;  
 Thus call'd on God, and quell'd his might,  
 ' Full soon—'twas Nelson's star that glar'd—  
 The cannon's horrid work is done ;  
 And, what his iron storm had spar'd,  
 Have Wreck and Conflagration won.  
 ' Yes !—while the swelling Despot roar'd  
 For "ships, and vassal realms afar,"  
 Our angry Heroes, all aboard,  
*Craz'd his hopes, and cow'd his war.*  
 ' Let the shout of conquest rise !  
 A double navy disappears !—  
 No !—silent all :—the triumph dies,  
 And exultation melts in tears.  
 ' What dims the lightning in Britannia's eye ?  
 Why droops her dang'rous Lion on the shore ?  
 Why sudden pause her thousand thunders ?—Why !  
 Her Pride, her Life, her Nelson—is no more !'

Mr. B.'s friend, in the Song annexed, is not more successful than himself :

- ' They strike—they yield—their flags are prone,  
 On every side we tear them down ;'

this is a just but not a poetical description of the action ; and we are not satisfied with having the death of the hero thus tamely sung,

- ' The hour is come, and 'tis decreed  
 That glorious Nelson's self must bleed.'

The death of Nelson, including all the circumstances of it, forms an affecting subject for the orator and the poet. He may be considered as expiring in a moment most propitious to his fame ;—in the moment, considering his ill state of health, which not only he himself but his friends would have chosen ;—and it might be said, to borrow the words of a lady on this occasion, as we heard them applied,

- " In his death was no sting,  
 In his grave—everlasting victory."

Art. 23. *Modern Paris* : a free Imitation of the Third Satire of Juvenal. Cr. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1805.

The Roman Satirist says of himself, *Facit indignatio versum* : but it is not always true that passion and poetry are united. Indignation must be disciplined by discretion ; or otherwise we turn with disgust from the censurer. To deal forth abuse by wholesale may gratify resentment, but it will, in a great measure, defeat its own purpose. When the picture is blackened beyond all bounds of probability, the artist fails to obtain credit, and we think of the old adage, "the devil is painted blacker than he is." This poetical imitator has, we think, allowed his rage too wide a scope ; in consequence of which, his poem cannot survive the enmity which at present subsists between England and France. In the spirit of patriotism, we make this remark ; for while

we devoutly wish success to our country in the present important struggle, we would not combat the foe with base and dishonourable weapons. If we reprobate the enemy, (and, in too many instances, he is reprehensible,) let us not be chargeable with, nor countenance, abuse; let us not write, nor patronize, any thing of which, in the hour of tranquillity, we shall be ashamed. Many circumstances in Bonaparte's conduct are fair objects of satire: but there is something too coarse in this couplet:

'Such as was ne'er exhibited before,  
The coronation of a r— and wh—.'

Again,

'Hear Bonaparte's lust, in Barras' lot,—  
Cold to his friend, to his friend's mistress hot;'

and the lines which soon follow do not seem to relate to his government, but rather to the reign of terror;

'Where Buonaparte offers to his God,  
If God he have, the sacrifice of blood;  
Where Jews, to prove Jews ev'ry where are found,  
Hire even of the guillotine the ground;  
Keep shops beneath the sanguinary shade,  
Wet with the droppings from its fatal blade;  
Which, like the sword of Damocles, in dread  
Hangs by a hair above their guilty head.'

The author next divulges his wish respecting the Corsican: but it is in such obscure and hobbling verse, that we cannot applaud his taste, whatever we may say of his zeal:

'On to the Thuilleries, where dwells, alas!  
The source of all our suff'rings, next we pass;  
Where the straight avenue and prim parterre  
Its want of taste and elegance declare;  
As thus *without*, would only so *within*!  
*Would folly here ended not there in sin!*  
Here only art abus'd disgusts our sights,  
There outrag'd Nature's robbed of all her rights,  
There sits the tyrant (would there lay!) in state,  
The fearful foe to all that's good and great;  
Of France the scourge, the curse of all the world;  
Not yet, soon surely to be from it hurl'd:  
The modern Satan, by his imps ador'd,  
In his own chaos by himself restor'd.'

Bonaparte is not yet dismissed. *Sape vocatus est ad partes.*

'Scavant or scavenger, his talents meet,  
In both extremes, the study and the street.'

'Through fire, air, water, earth alike speeds well,  
If not to heaven, full as far—to hell.'

'When like a *Bantam cock*, he struts and crows,  
Or, like Punch in a passion, squeaks and goes.'—

Such

Such are the squibs (called satirical) shot from this popgun.—An ardent supplication is offered to the Deity in behalf of England, in which the author prays that it may be

- ‘ A second ark, after man’s second fall,  
Safe in itself that safety brings to all;  
Its pilot Pitt, another Noah, sent,  
As first of men, mankind to rescue meant.’—

Though the imitator is thus ardent in prayer for England, he appears, by the following couplet, to be a Frenchman. After having remarked that every prison is now become a Bastille, he adds,

- ‘ While former sov’reigns were content with one,  
And *our* last Louis without that has done.’

The *topsy-turveyism* occasioned by the revolution, ‘ the dregs of Paris risen to the scum,’ is a fair subject for the satiric muse: it is here delineated at some length; and the picture concludes with,

- ‘ Another *revolution* may restore  
All to their proper places as before.’

Dr. Johnson’s beautiful and nervous imitation of this Satire, intitled “London,” is familiar to our poetical readers; after which, ‘Modern Paris’ must appear to very great disadvantage. The state of morals in all overgrown cities is nearly the same; but we hope that London, with all its wickedness, is not so sunken in depravity as Paris; where Italians, we are told, import

- ‘ Their vice without th’ excuses of their sky,  
And girls and boys at *Palais Royal* ply.’

Perhaps to the English verse of a French Royalist some allowance ought to be made; and, though we often smile at his lame and hobbling couplets, it is surprising, on the whole, that this poem is not more defective. The author has given full vent to his rage against the present ruler of France, and he wields the pen as a sort of pastime or recreation, till he is summoned

- ‘ ————— to wield the sword  
Against her lawless, for her lawful Lord.’

To make farther extracts would be to heap the plate of our poetical reader from a dish very indifferently cooked.

Art. 24. *Nelson’s Tomb*, a Poem. By William Thomas Fitzgerald, Esq. Author of *Nelson’s Triumph*, or the *Battle of the Nile*, &c. To which is added, an Address to England on her *Nelson’s Death*. By the same Author. 4to. 2s. 6d. Asperne.

Even while the remains of our immortal warrior have been passing over the bosom of the ocean, to receive the merited honours of public interment, Mr. Fitzgerald has apparently exclaimed, in the words of our great bard,

- “ He must not float upon his wat’ry bier  
Unwept,  
Without the meed of some melodious tear.”

He has therefore employed his muse in weaving a laurel wreath for the brow of the hero, in suggesting ideas to the sculptor for the erection of his monument, in cherishing our noblest feelings, and in swelling the torrent of public lamentation, on which his revered ashes will be wafted to the tomb. After having delineated the approach of the warrior's remains to his native shore, and the lamentations of his admiring countrymen, the poet thus sketches his design for the tomb :

“ In Parian marble let the SCULPTOR grave,  
 The deeds of NELSON on the boundless wave !  
 There let the vanquish'd Nile his homage pay,  
 Pale with the horror of ABOUKIR's day !  
 The blazing ORIENT should increase his dread—  
 The LOTOS trembling on the river's head.  
 Egypt's proud Pyramids, for ages found,  
 An useless wonder on a barren ground ;  
 Now stand the monuments of British fame,  
 Inscrib'd by glory with her NELSON's name !  
 These, on the Tomb, must rise in lofty pride,  
 Sea-marks of triumph ! peering o'er the tide.  
 The eye must view the Scandinavian yield  
 His gallant sword, and well-defended shield ;  
 The princely Dane his manly grief shall shew  
 For him, whom France once rendered Denmark's foe,—  
 Whole fleets subdued must grace the Hero's Shrine,  
 The sinking bulwark, and the broken line !  
 While brave Iberia, on her swelling flood,  
 Is drench'd in native, and in Gallic blood.  
 Partakers of their HONOUR'D ADMIRAL's doom,  
 Let DUFF, and COOKE, be mention'd on his tomb ;  
 With ev'ry Briton who resign'd his breath,  
 And gain'd his Country's gratitude in death !  
 To crown the work, the Artist's skill must trace  
 A faithful copy of the HERO's face ;  
 When VICTOR in TRAFALGAR's dreadful fight,  
 Glory convey'd him to the REALMS OF LIGHT !!  
 Emboss'd with gold, and full in public view,  
 These lines shall strike—emphatically true !  
 “ This trophied Monument did England raise  
 To shew her Gratitude, and speak her Praise—  
 No other Epitaph her Nelson needs,  
 Than his own Name, and his immortal Deeds !—”

In the address to England, Mr. F. describes, with energy, our Nelson's recent exertions in pursuit of the enemy, and the glorious circumstances of his last victory and death.

Mr. Fitzgerald's lines are pathetic and harmonious ; and had not the poem reached us at a very late period of the month, we should probably have borrowed a few more of them for the gratification of our readers.

## BOTANY.

**Art. 25.** *A Botanical Dictionary*: or, Elements of Systematic and Philosophical Botany. By Colin Milne, LL.D. Author of Institutes of Botany, and Habitations of English Plants. The 3d Edition, revised, corrected, and very considerably enlarged. Illustrated by Twenty-five new Plates. 8vo. Price 11. 1s., plain, 11. 15s. coloured. Boards. Symonds.

As we entered pretty fully into the merits of the first edition of this work\*, we shall now refrain from any particular analysis of its more enlarged and improved form. Though yet far from perfection, it is the most reputable publication of the kind in the English language; and the additional plates, and several of the new articles, eminently contribute to enhance its value. We fear, however, that Dr. Milne is unacquainted with some of the best recent sources of information, or he has treated them with unbecoming neglect. When the names of the elder botanists occur in almost every page, we have not been able to discern those of Senebier, Bulliard, Hedwig, and others of nearly equal celebrity. The whole of De Jussieu's nomenclature was likewise worthy of insertion. We are, indeed, aware that the learned compiler may remind us of the increased bulk of his volume: but, if he had been careful to expunge all the superfluous passages, especially many of those which refer to very equivocal uses of plants, and to obsolete theoretical opinions, he would have preserved ample room for a complete explanation of the systematic vocabulary. It is likewise with concern that we perceive a disposition to subtract, on various occasions, from the merits and pretensions of the illustrious founder of the sexual system.—With these and a few other exceptions, which may be of too minute a description to be pointed out, we would recommend this Dictionary to the attention not only of the tyro in botany, but to the student who has made some proficiency in that amusing and delightful science.

## RELIGIOUS.

**Art. 26.** *The Plague Stayed*: a Scriptural View of Pestilence, particularly of that dreadful Pestilence the Small-Pox, with Considerations on the Cow-Pock; in Two Sermons, the first preached before the University of Cambridge, Feb. 24, 1805, with Notes and Illustrations; the second, in the Parish Church of Hinxton, Cambridgeshire, March 3, 1805. By the Rev James Plumptre, M.A. Fellow of Clare Hall, and Sequestrator of Hinxton. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons.

We shall endeavour, with all possible brevity, to give the substance of these singular sermons. Mr. P. informs us that Mohammedanism, the Papal power, and modern Infidelity, constitute the threefold form of *Anti-christ*; and that, as sin and punishment are connected in the divine administration, it may be concluded that this blasphemous and wicked power could not run its career without the visible signs of God's wrath, without some striking evils accompanying it. Accordingly we find the *Vial of Wrath* poured out. That "noisome and

\* See Review, vol. xliii. p. 207., and vol. lix. p. 69.

grievous sore," the *Small-pox*, was first known at the time of the impostor Mohammed; as well as the introduction into Europe of another disease, which shall be nameless. Since, however, the pestilence of the small-pox was not, like former divine judgments, sent in a miraculous way, but had its origin in second causes, we may suppose that natural means will be used for its mitigation and extinction, by which "the plague shall be stayed," (the text). Inoculation, which was expected to produce this effect, has failed; but it has led the way to one of the greatest temporal blessings which the Preserver of the universe has ever conferred on mankind; viz. the discovery of Vaccine Inoculation; and if the Arabian Impostor be called Apollyon, (the *Destroyer*,) Dr. Jenner, whose name might be supposed to be derived from the Greek word *γενω*, to *generate* and *restore*, (as Apollyon from *απολλυμι*, to *destroy*,) should be hailed as the benefactor and restorer of mankind. The small pox has already raged 1100 years, and perhaps the period of 1260 years may be affixed to it. 'Mahommedanism and Popery have had their rise, have reached their summit, and are upon their decline; with them perhaps the pestilence may cease, and it may take the remainder of the period ere prejudice shall universally adopt the remedy.' The British nation has been the means of extending the blessing of vaccination to every quarter of the globe; and, as 'perhaps we are the purest nation upon the earth,' we may contribute to diffuse farther light and happiness. In conclusion, Mr. P. remarks that the *plague* had its origin among the Turks, that the *leprosy* was brought into Europe by mad Crusaders, and that the *yellow fever*, which rages in the West Indies, 'that warehouse of enslaved Africans, seems to chastise the nation that traffics in them.' This awkward glance at the slave trade (which, by the way, is no proof of our being the purest nation on the earth,) is counterbalanced by a high eulogy on Britain for her extensive charities; yet, lest we should lay too much stress on this circumstance, we are reminded that it will not avail unless sin ceases among us.—The notes subjoined to the first Sermon are curious and amusing.

The second Sermon is in a great measure a repetition of that which was delivered before the University, adapted to the congregation of a parish church; and here the preacher combats, which was not necessary in addressing a learned body, the vulgar objections to vaccination. We do not pledge ourselves to defend all Mr. P.'s hypotheses: but we heartily concur with him in wishing, that no prejudice may obstruct the use of so valuable and important a discovery as that of cow-pock.

Art. 27. *The prophetic and anticipated History of the Church of Rome*, written and published six Hundred Years before the Rise of that Church. In which the prophetic Figures and Allegories are literally explained; and her Tricks, Frauds, Blasphemies, and dreadful Persecutions of the Church of Christ are foretold and described. Prefaced by an Address dedicatory, expostulatory, and critical, to the Rev. Mr. Whitaker, Dean of Canterbury, &c. &c. By Joseph Galloway, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Boards. West, Jones, &c. Had Mr. Galloway been trained by a professed polemical drill-serjeant,

berfaint, he could not have been more expert in that most dextrous manœuvre in theological controversy, the substitution of abusive epithets for calm argument. He can see the defects of other expositors: but he shews no temper when his own comments are attacked. We shall not waste our time by discussing with him what he terms the interpretations and completions of the prophecies of the Apocalypse: but we shall venture to pronounce that his explanations are altogether visionary and unfounded, unworthy the attention of the sober critic, and calculated to excite the sneer rather than to produce the conviction of the Infidel.

**Art. 28.** *A full and complete Analysis of Dr. Paley's Natural Theology; or Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity: collected from the Appearances of Nature.* By Jeremiah Joyce. 8vo. pp. 161. 3s. Conder. 1804.

Mr. Joyce seems to have faithfully executed his task: but whether that task be beneficial, or not, is to us a matter of doubt. Abridgments did not grow prevalent till the decline of letters; and the losses of valuable works, which they have occasioned, has been often regretted. It may be said that, from that danger, we of this day are perfectly secure: but are we certain that these seductive abstracts will not lead to another evil, that of occasioning the originals to be neglected? They seem to be allowable chiefly in the case of very voluminous and expensive works: which can be consulted only by the few, but the substance of which it is desirable to impart to the many. Mr. Joyce earnestly, and, we doubt not, very sincerely, recommends the perusal of his author, while he has taken an effectual step (undesignedly) to circumscribe it.

#### THANKSGIVING SERMONS, Dec. 5.

**Art. 29.** *The Destruction of the combined Fleets of France and Spain—* preached at Worship-street. By John Evans, M.A. 8vo. 1s. Symonds.

The text of this discourse, Rev. viii. 9. *And a third part of the ships were destroyed*, is not considered as prophetic, but is merely chosen by the preacher as applicable to the late maritime victory; in which, he observes, even more than a third part of the enemy's ships were destroyed. It is farther remarked that this victory is not only great but seasonable, as well as exhilarating; dissipating (for the present, at least,) the fear of invasion, giving greater security to our ships of commerce, and tending to facilitate (though not immediately) the blessings of peace. After this view of the subject, Mr. Evans offers some practical reflections, and exhorts his hearers to contribute to the Patriotic Fund.

**Art. 30.** *Preached in Oxford Chapel by Cavendish Square; by the Rev. David Evans, Assistant Minister of the said Chapel.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

With piety adapted to the occasion, Mr. Evans combines loyalty and patriotic sentiment. He apologizes for what might be termed the indulgence of carnal resentment, in his picture of the 'stripling foreigner who has risen to empire by a successful sword:' but the feelings of his hearers being probably in unison with his own, they would

would be rather gratified than disgusted by the preacher's indignant Philippic.

Art. 31. *Preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary, Shrewsbury.*  
By John Brickdale Blakeway, A. M., Minister of the Parish.  
8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

The pre-eminent blessings which Britain now enjoys are not here enumerated with a narrow spirit, as if the preacher rejoiced in their being withheld from other nations; nor does he comment on them in a way that is calculated to flatter our own vanity and pride: but he laudably endeavours to assist his hearers in viewing political events through a Christian medium, that Christian virtue may be the result.

#### SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 32. *The Character of the Christian Teacher delineated, and the Means of forming it represented;* delivered at Hackney, January 8, 1804, for the Benefit of the Academical Institution at Exeter; and published at the Request of the Congregation. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

That the Christian minister should be "faithful," and "able to teach," is asserted by St. Paul in the text (2 Tim. ii. 2.); and the preacher in this discourse delineates the qualifications which the fulfilment of his task requires, and urges their high importance in the present state of the church. After having shewn how necessary it is that the Christian teacher should be deeply convinced of the truth of Revelation; possess enlightened and fervent piety; be well instructed; honourable and fearless; disinterested, zealous, yet prudent and charitable; a man of learning and grave elocution; and a living example of the power of Christian principle over the temper, heart, and life; he proceeds to enumerate the means by which such characters may be formed, the most efficacious of which he considers to be Academical Institutions, or Colleges, furnished with proper tutors for the instruction of youth devoted to the Ministry. He laments that rational Dissenters have *now* no College near London for the education of Ministers, and pays high compliments to an Institution of this kind which existed near the metropolis some years ago, but which, owing to the narrow views of the Managers, was dissolved. Mr. B. concludes with recommending the Academical Institution at Exeter to the patronage of rational Christians.

Art. 33. *The Character and final Perseverance of the Righteous;*—preached at St. Margaret's Chapel, Westminster, December 16, 1804, on occasion of the Death of Mrs. Henrietta Stemler, who departed this Life December 6, 1804, aged 55; with some interesting Particulars of her Life and Death. By John Davies, M. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

The remarks which here introduce the account of the deceased are of a Calvinistic stamp, and the preacher laments Mrs. Stemler's acquaintance with Mr. John Wesley, who had disturbed her comfort by raising doubts about the defectibility of grace: but Mrs. Stemler obtained, before her death, an assurance of the perseverance of the saints, and, according to the preacher, was an example of it. She

was

was born at Berne, and kept a school for young ladies in Queen's Square, Westminster.

Art. 34. *Preached in Lambeth-Chapel*, April 28, 1805, at the Consecration of the Rt. Rev. Henry Bathurst, LL. D. Lord Bishop of Norwich, and published at the Command of the Archbishop of Canterbury. By Richard Prosser, D. D. Prebendary of Durham. 4to. 1s. Payne.

It is clearly this author's aim to apply the text, (Ephes. iv. 15, 16) with corresponding passages of Scripture, to that particular form of church-government, of which he is a member: other parties may deem the account equally suitable to their own;—and so it may be, if Christian piety, truth, and benevolence, actuate the several individuals. Such is, without doubt, the intention of the sacred writers, to prove that, as in the body of man, so also in human society, and particularly in the church of Christ, all the constituent parts, however inferior any of them may seem, have each their importance, and may and ought to be rendered beneficial; as they certainly will, if they are influenced and governed by the spirit of Christ.—Respecting particular *forms and orders* of ecclesiastical discipline, varying opinions will prevail.—Happy had it been, and would it yet be, if, while churches observe their distinct modes, they would attribute to them but small consequence in comparison with that humility, that union of affection, and that bond of peace for which Christianity so powerfully pleads; yet which, by differing and especially predominant parties, are too generally rejected. Dr. Prosser delivers himself with much propriety of diction; his composition bearing the marks of considerable polish, and his periods being studiously finished.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

Mr. Dallas, author of the "Elements of Self Knowledge," mentioned in our last Review, has favored us with a letter respecting the criticisms in that article, and referring to a second edition of the work, just published. With regard to our remarks, Mr. D. wishes it to be remembered that his volume was professedly a compilation, and professedly no more than elementary; that therefore he conceives himself not open to censure where he is found to have borrowed; nor where he has failed to go deeper into a science than he deemed requisite in an elementary treatise. This is very true; but there is a difference in degree, in this sort of literary labour: to *compile* is one thing, and to *transcribe* is another; and it seems most proper, where large quotations are made, to assign them to their original sources. 'A young Lady,' whose letter bears the Nottingham post-mark, has reminded us that the passages on Pride and Vanity, which we extracted from Mr. D.'s book, were borrowed by him from Adam Smith's *Theory of Moral Sentiments*; but this fair critic seems to have been herself rather under the influence of these qualities, from the smartness with which she communicates her discovery; and she should have recollected that Smith was mentioned as one of Mr. Dallas's acknowledged sources. This circumstance

stance shews, however, that, as we have just observed, Mr. D. would have done well in specifying those instances in which he copied largely from others.

The second edition of these *Elements* is in several respects different from the former. Besides being throughout revised, the anatomical part is made more simple, and the technical terms are explained at the bottom of the page. It is also augmented by Arbuthnot's poem intitled *Knew thyself*, and by Collins's *Ode on the Passions*.

We have received a letter from Mr. Eyton, author of a Sermon on the late Naval Victory, noticed in our last Number; in which he alleges that we mis-stated his meaning respecting the particular seasons of the occurrence of national blessings: but we do not subscribe to the justice of the charge, though we are very ready to admit his explanation. We merely adverted to the position, which is or is not true, independently of the context. Of his reasoning we were aware: but, unconnected with the context, if the assertion be true that the greatest national blessings have been experienced when iniquity has most abounded, the principle on which fast-day and thanksgiving Sermons are generally built completely falls to the ground. Preachers should take care to erect their expostulations on sound premises.

Dr. Adams has pointed out to us an error of the press in our account of his "Answers to Objections against the Cow-Pox," in our last Review: where at p. 328. l. 8. *hepatic* is printed instead of *berpetic*. The Doctor also informs us that he has published a new edition of his pamphlet, in which he notices those adverse productions which have appeared since his first impression.

*Inquisitor* apprizes us that the biographical notice of *Beaumarchais*, and the remarks on his writings, which appeared in our last *Appendix*, pp. 490—492. were copied without acknowledgement into a Magazine of some standing, for November last.—We know that this practice is often adopted by the Editors of Magazines; who perhaps think that it is fair, from the nature of their work: but we conceive that it would be fairer to state their obligations, because otherwise they may subject us to the suspicion of having copied from them, in the minds of those who do not advert to priority of dates.

We occasionally receive letters from America, respecting the delivery of the numbers of the M. R. to individuals: but we beg to inform all our Western Friends that we have no concern with this matter, which rests with the Booksellers who correspond between the *old and the new world*.—This note applies in particular to a recent letter from New York.

In the last Review, P. 300. l. 32. dele *with*.—P. 328. l. 8. for '*hepatic*,' read *berpetic*. P. 336. l. 8. insert the word *better* before '*chance*.'

☞ The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for January.



# A P P E N D I X

## TO THE

### FORTY-EIGHTH VOLUME

## OF THE

# M O N T H L Y R E V I E W

## E N L A R G E D.

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### FOREIGN LITERATURE.

• *Mémoires de l'Institut, &c.* Memoirs of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences. Vol. V. 4to. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

WE resume our analysis of this *livraison* of the proceedings of this learned body, by directing our attention to the volume which relates to the

MATHEMATICAL and PHYSICAL SCIENCES ;

and we shall divide its contents under two corresponding heads, beginning with the

MATHEMATICAL and ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS.

**HISTORY.** *Report made to the Mathematical and Physical Class, concerning the Astronomical and Nautical Observations of Joseph Joachim de Ferrer. By M. LEVÊQUE.*—The observations here mentioned form the basis of certain geographical determinations made in South America and the Azores. *M. Ferrer* having very properly described the Instruments, and the methods and formulas of calculation which he employed, together with the precautions and artifices suggested or made necessary by local circumstances, the Commission, in whose name M. LEVÊQUE speaks, turned their attention to these points: for thus only they could be enabled to judge of the accuracy of *M. Ferrer's* geographical determinations. The Instruments employed by that gentleman were of English manufacture, and by the best Artists: except in one instance, the Commission approves of his *methods*; the formulas of calculation were such

as are generally known and used, and no objection therefore could be made against these; and, altogether, it appears that much benefit has been conferred on Geography by M. *Ferrer*. In the present report, several particular Geographical Determinations are put down; and we hope that the whole will be made public, in order that our Maps and Charts may speedily receive the necessary corrections.

*Report relative to a new system of constructing Masts for Vessels.* By M. LEVÊQUE.—The new invention here reported is that of a Mast-maker at Rotterdam; by the adoption of which, Masts are to be made lighter and more easy of repair. The Class, to whose judgment the Invention was submitted, approved the design; and the Reporter introduces into his paper some interesting information concerning several problems in Nautical Mechanics.

*Report made to the Mathematical and Physical Class.* By M. CAMUS.—This paper refers to an examination ordered to be instituted respecting the capacity of the Antient Paris Pint. In the new measures, this pint is fixed at 46.95 cubic inches; but it was contended that the capacity ought to be 48. This latter opinion originated, it appears, from the existence of pint measures used in 1747, and which the Parliament had proscribed in 1750.

*Report on a Memoir of M. Gail, intitled Description of an Astrolabe by Synesius.* By M. DELAMBRE.

MEMOIR. *On the Stereographic Projection*; by the same.

We have ranged these two papers together, because the memoir was drawn up in consequence of the Report. The memoir of *Gail* is almost a complete translation of *Synesius's* letter to *Pæonius*, which accompanied the present of a silver Astrolabe; and it appears, by the evidence of this letter, that *Hiparchus* was the original Inventor of the Planisphere, and not *Ptolemy*. This latter Astronomer was probably not fully acquainted with all the properties of the stereographic projection: for instance, he did not know that all circles of the sphere, excepting those of which the plane passes through the eye, are in the stereographic projection always projected into circles; and this remarkable property was, in fact, for a long period, within the reach of Mathematicians, without their availing themselves of it. It is demonstrated in *Apollonius*, that the sub-contrary section of a cone is, like the base, a circle. The step to be made, therefore, in order to prove the projection of a circle to be a circle, was that the plane of projection forms a sub-contrary Section in every cone, the vertex of which is the eye, and the base a circle of the sphere. Easy

as this step is, it was not achieved till fifteen hundred years after the time of Hipparchus.

One remarkable property of the Stereographic projection has been already mentioned: another, equally curious, unknown to Ptolemy, is that the circles of projection intersect each other in the same angle as the circles on the sphere. The proof of this property is the object of M. DELAMBRE's memoir; and it is effected with great conciseness, and with what may be called mathematical elegance. In fact, he deduces the proof from two expressions; one, that of the distance of the centre of the sphere from the projected pole of the projected circle; the other, that of the radius of the projected circle. If  $P$  be the pole,  $PE$  the arc drawn from  $P$  to the circumference of the circle to be projected, and if  $AP$  be the distance of  $P$  from the pole of projection, then the expression for the distance of the centre of the sphere from the pole of the projected circle

$$= \frac{\sin. AP}{\cos. AP + \cos. PE}, \text{ and radius of projected circle} = \frac{\sin. PE}{\cos. AP + \cos. PE}.$$

M. DELAMBRE subjoins a geometrical demonstration of the property of the projection, and applies his formulas to the construction of maps which represent the earth projected. His memoir also contains the solution of all the problems which Synesius says he had resolved.

In the report and in the connected memoir, considerable doubts are expressed whether Ptolemy was the author of the Treatise of the Planisphere. Of this treatise we have only a Latin Translation made from the Arabic.

We recommend the perusal of this paper to all lovers of mathematical science.

*Notice respecting the great Logarithmic and Trigonometrical Tables calculated at the Board of Registry of Lands, under the direction of M. PRONY. By M. PRONY.*

*Report relative to the grand Trigonometrical Tables. By M. DELAMBRE.*

The decimal division of the circle rendered the construction of new tables necessary; and ten years ago, M. PRONY was appointed to superintend and direct their formation. He was desired to select his coadjutors, not only for the obvious purpose of rendering the tables as exact as possible, but, to use his own words, '*à en faire le monument de calcul le plus vaste et le plus important qui eût jamais été exécuté ou même conçu.*'

The principle of the division of labour was applied to the construction of these tables. The calculators were divided

into three sets; the first consisting of the most able mathematicians, directing and superintending the analytical part: the second, of seven or eight skilful computists in arithmetic as well as in analysis, employed in deducing numbers from the general formulas: the third set, (and the largest, their number being from 60 to 80,) consisted of persons who were only required to add and subtract.

We observe that the method of calculating these tables differs, in some respects, from that which has been usually employed. In the present paper, the method is generally described, and we shall endeavour to make it clear to our readers by a few particulars.

Suppose  $v$  to be a function of  $x$ , and successive values of  $v$  to be  $v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_n$ .

Let the difference between two successive values be denoted by  $\Delta v$

Then  $v_1 = v + \Delta v$

$$v_2 = v_1 + \Delta v_1 = v_1 + \Delta v + \Delta^2 v$$

$$v_3 = v_2 + \Delta v_2 = v_2 + \Delta v_1 + \Delta^2 v_1 \\ = v_1 + \Delta v_1 + \Delta^2 v + \Delta^3 v$$

and generally,

$$v_n = v_{n-1} + \Delta v_{n-1} + \Delta^2 v_{n-2} + \&c.$$

Hence,  $\Delta v, \Delta^2 v$  &c. being known,  $v_n$  may be determined. Suppose the Logarithms of 1001, 1002, 1003, &c. are to be determined: the logarithm of 1000 is  $3 = v$ , of 1001  $= v_1$ , of 1002  $= v_2$  &c. Now generally  $\log. (x + i) = \log. x + m$

$$\left\{ \frac{i}{x} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{i^2}{x^2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{i^3}{x^3} \right\}$$

$$\text{or } v^1 (v + \Delta v) = v + m \left\{ \frac{i}{x} - \frac{i^2}{2x^2} + \frac{i^3}{3x^3} - \&c. \right\}$$

$$\text{or } \Delta v = m \left\{ \frac{i}{x} - \frac{i^2}{2x^2} + \frac{i^3}{3x^3} - \&c. \right\}$$

and similarly may we determine

$$\Delta^2 v = -m \left\{ \frac{i^2}{x^2} - \frac{2i^3}{x^3} + \&c. \right\}$$

$$\Delta^3 v = m \left\{ \frac{2i^3}{x^3} - \&c. \right\}$$

In the present instance,  $x = 1000$ ,  $i = 1$ ,  $m = .43429$  &c.  
 $\therefore \log. 1001$  or  $v + \Delta v = 3.434147$  &c.

Again,  $v_2 = v_1 + \Delta v_1 = v_1 + \Delta v + \Delta^2 v$ .

To

To the logarithm of 1001, then, computed as above, add the quantity  $\Delta v + \Delta^2 v$  computed from the preceding forms; and we obtain the logarithm of 1002.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Again, } v_3 &= v_2 + \Delta v_2 = v_2 + \Delta v_1 + \Delta^2 v_1 \\ &= v_2 + \Delta v + 2\Delta^2 v + \Delta^3 v \end{aligned}$$

To the log. of 1002, add the quantity  $\Delta v + 2\Delta^2 v + \Delta^3 v$  computed as above, and we have the logarithm of 1003.

By this method, it is clear, the logarithms of numbers from 1000 to 1010, for instance, may be computed by simple additions. This number may serve as a new point of departure: thus, in preceding formulas, for  $x$  put 1010, and calculate the quantities  $\Delta v$ ,  $\Delta^2 v$ ,  $\Delta^3 v$ , &c. and then the logarithms of numbers from 1010 to 1020, by a process the same as that which we have shewn, may be obtained. For exactness, and for the sake of verifying the computations, the logarithm of 1010 ought to be calculated from the logarithmic series; and if the computation has been rightly conducted, the logarithm of 1010 so computed ought to agree with the logarithm obtained by the successive addition of the differences  $\Delta v$ ,  $\Delta^2 v$ , &c. to the logarithms of 1001, 1002, &c.

The process is similar for the calculation of sines. By employing the trigonometrical formulas,  $\Delta v$ ,  $\Delta^2 v$ , &c. must be computed; and then successively  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$ , &c. thus,

$$\begin{aligned} v_1 &= \sin. (x+i) = \sin. x \cdot \cos. i + \cos. x \cdot \sin. i. \therefore \Delta v = \sin. x \\ &(\cos. i - 1) + \cos. x \sin. i: \text{ but } \cos. i - 1 = -2 \left( \sin. \frac{i}{2} \right)^2 \\ \therefore \Delta v \text{ or } \Delta \sin. x &= \cos. x \cdot \sin. i - \sin. x \cdot 2 \left( \sin. \frac{i}{2} \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we may compute  $\Delta^2 v = -4 \cdot \sin. (x+i) \left( \sin. \frac{i}{2} \right)^4$   
 $\Delta^3 v$  &c.

Hence it is evident that we may compute, as in logarithms, by continual addition, the sines of arcs ascending in arithmetic progression: thus  $v_2 = v_1 + \Delta v$ : let the difference of the arcs be 1 minute  $\therefore i = 1'$ : then  $\sin. (x+2') = \sin. (x+1') + \Delta \sin. (x+1') = (\sin. + 1') + \Delta \sin. x + \Delta^2 \sin. x = \sin. (x+1') + \left\{ \sin. (x+1') - \sin. x \right\} - \sin. (x+1') (2 \sin. 30'')^2$

So also,

$$\begin{aligned} \sin. (x+3') &= \sin. (x+2') + \left\{ \sin. (x+2') - \sin. (x+1') \right\} \\ &- \sin. (x+2') (2 \sin. 30'')^2 \end{aligned}$$

The sines of arcs thus computed by successive additions were compared, at certain intervals, with sines immediately

deduced from the series. A new point of departure was fixed, and the differences were again computed. For farther verification, the computed series were examined by this formula:

$$\sin. x + \sin. (36^\circ - x) + \sin. (72^\circ + x) = \sin. (36^\circ + x) + \sin. (72^\circ - x)$$

In examining the sines computed by a direct calculation, with the same sines computed by the method of differences after eight hundred operations, it appeared, in general, that the error, accumulated after so great a number of trials, did not exceed an unit in the twenty-second decimal place.

These tables are not as yet offered to the public; and we apprehend that the reason, in plain English, for the prosecution of the work being suspended, is the want of money. Government ordered the undertaking, but its *argent* is destined to other purposes. This is to be lamented: yet the tables, we think, could never come into general use, from their vast extent: nor would every one be able to purchase the volumes. There are cases, however, in which they will be very useful; and other tables may be corrected from them, or composed under an abridged form. We hope, then, soon to hear of the appearance of this great monument of calculation, under the patronage of a government which declares itself to be "*l'ami des Arts et des Sciences.*"

*Explanation of a Point of History respecting certain Trigonometrical Tables.* By M. PRONY.—The attention of the author, after he had undertaken the superintendence of the great Trigonometrical Tables, about to be published in France, was naturally directed to those works of the same kind which at present exist. Two of them especially claimed his attention; the *Opus Palatinum*, begun by *Rheticus* the pupil of *Copernicus*, and printed by *Orto* in 1596; and the *Thesaurus Mathematicus*, calculated by *Rheticus*, and published by *Pitiscus* in 1613.—Of these productions, a particular description and analysis were given in the Berlin Memoirs for 1786, by JOHN BERNOULLI: whence it appears that the copy of the *Opus Palatinum* in the Library of the Berlin Academy contains errors which *Pitiscus* discovered, and mentions to have discovered in his preface to the posthumous work of *Rheticus*, the *Thesaurus Mathematicus*. The copies of the *Opus Palatinum*, however, which M. PRONY first examined, and the copy in the Berlin Library, were without these corrections. The obscurity attending this circumstance was dispelled by a copy of the *Opus Palatinum* which M. PRONY luckily discovered at the shop of M. Duprat, a bookseller; and which contains the corrections and the explanation of every particular mentioned by *Pitiscus* in his preface to the *Thesaurus Mathe-*

*Mathematicus.* This copy is not a new edition, but differs from the common copies in having 86 pages of corrections made by *Pitiscus*, reprinted and bound up with the old work. The colour of the paper, and the difference of type, plainly shew what is new.

M. PRONY furnishes a brief history of *Rheticus*, and of the circumstances which attended the publication of the *Opus Palatinum* and the *Thesaurus Mathematicus*. Our histories of mathematics want correction in this respect.

In the latter part of his paper, the author gives a method by which the errors committed by Otho in his computation of cosecants and cotangents may be ascertained. Tangents and secants are derived, it is known, from sines and cosines; thus  $\tan. a = \frac{\sin. a}{\cos. a}$  and  $\sec. a = \frac{1}{\cos. a}$ : but, in calculating these quantities exact to a certain number of places of figures, we ought to consider what error in the tangent, or secant, is consequent on a given error in the sine and cosine.

Let  $\epsilon$  be variation of cosine

$\epsilon$  - - of sine

$x$  - - of secant

$y$  - - of tangent

$$\text{then, } \sec. a = \frac{1}{\cos. a} \therefore \sec. a + x = \frac{1}{\cos. a - \epsilon} = \frac{1}{\cos. a} + \frac{\epsilon}{(\cos. a)^2} + \frac{\epsilon^2}{(\cos. a)^3} + \&c.$$

$$\text{consequently, } x = \frac{\epsilon}{(\cos. a)^2} + \frac{\epsilon^2}{(\cos. a)^3} + \frac{\epsilon^3}{(\cos. a)^4} + \&c.$$

and is less, the greater  $\cos. a$  is; that is, is less, the smaller the arc  $a$  is.

$$\text{Again; } \tan. a = \frac{\sin. a}{\cos. a}$$

$$\text{consequently, } \tan. a + y = \frac{\sin. a + \epsilon}{\cos. a - \epsilon}$$

$$y = \frac{\sin. a + \epsilon}{\cos. a - \epsilon} - \frac{\sin. a}{\cos. a}$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon \cos. a + \epsilon \sin. a}{\cos. a (\cos. a - \epsilon)}$$

$$\text{but } \frac{x}{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{\cos. a (\cos. a - \epsilon)}$$

$$\text{consequently, } y = \left\{ \sin. a + \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon} \cos. a \right\} x$$

In this case, if  $a$  be nearly a right angle,  $\cos. a$  is small, and the variation of the tangent ( $y$ ) nearly  $= \sin. a \times x$ .

M. PRONY has added several tables, by which a comparison is made between the values of sines calculated by *Pitiscus*, and the values of the same sines calculated by the French mathematicians, to be inserted in their new Tables. The third table is very useful: it shews how many places of exact decimals the cosine of an arc must have, in order that the secant thence deduced may be exact to ten places of decimals. To calculate the secant of arcs from  $0$  to  $50^{\circ}$ ,  $47'$ , eleven exact decimals are sufficient: to calculate the secant of  $88^{\circ}$ ,  $51'$ ,  $14''$  exact to ten places, fifteen exact places are necessary in the cosine; and to calculate the secant of  $89^{\circ}$ ,  $59'$ ,  $47''$ , twenty places are requisite.—This paper is instructive and interesting to mathematicians.

*Report on the Experiments of M. Volta.* By M. BIOR.—We have here a concise statement of the principal experiments made by *Volta* in Galvanism, and of the inferences which he deduced from them for the formation of a theory. The object of this theory is to reduce all the phenomena to one, the existence of which is well established; and this phenomenon is the developement or extrication of metallic electricity by the mutual contact of metals. In the opinion of the committee, of which M. BIOR is the organ, the peculiar fluid, to which, during some time, muscular contractions and the phenomena of the pile have been attributed, is identical with the common electrical fluid, put in motion by a cause of which we discern the effects although we are ignorant of its nature.—In the notes to this report, is given a mathematical demonstration of the formulas employed for the valuation of the force of the pile.

MEMOIRS.—*On the Zodiac represented on the Church at Strasbourg.* By JEROME LA LANDE.—This memoir is neither very interesting nor very important, for it does not establish any curious fact. The figures which typify the several seasons are described and engraved, and they appear to be nearly the same as those which are observed on the zodiacs at Saint Denis and at Paris. M. DE LA LANDE remarks that

‘We may regard these three zodiacs as a kind of agricultural calendar, and this manner of depicting nature and its operations is of the highest antiquity. It enters into the composition of sacred poems, and it is found in the monuments of the worship of the antients; especially in that of the sun, or *Mithras*, adored by the Persians. The two equinoctial points, which then answered to the Bull and the Scorpion, are characterised by these two animals, each placed at the foot of a tree; one of which has budding leaves and the other has fruits. To each tree, a torch is attached; the first elevated and lighted, the other thrown down and extinguished, to represent the Spring and Autumn.

‘ However

‘However rude the sculpture of these three zodiacs may be, it appears useful to preserve their designs, in order to make known the astrological genius of the ancients, and its influence on different religions.’

*Memoir on the Appulse of the Moon and of the Planet Mars, the 12th of Thermidor, Year 6th.* By M. DUC LACHAPELLE.

*Description of Circles or Rings of different Colours round the Moon, observed on the 4th of Pluviose, 7th Year.*—By M. MESSIER.

A figure is annexed, representing this phænomenon. The author enumerates two or three similar occurrences; and he remarks that it is necessary to distinguish, with more precision than is usually employed, three different classes of phænomena, (very distinct in their characters,) which are produced by the light of the moon: 1st. The Lunar Rainbow; 2dly. The *Halo*; 3d. The Ring or Corona, described in the present memoir; of which the diameter does not exceed 10 degrees.

*Calculation of different Eclipses, for the purpose of determining Geographical Longitudes.* By JEROME LA LANDE.—The celebrated author of this memoir, during a period of forty years, has calculated, or caused to be calculated, Eclipses observed in different countries; and he here presents to the Institute a continuation of his labors.

*Opposition of Mars in 1798, with the Result for the Aphelion of that Planet.* By the same.—In 1798, the opposition of Mars was near the Perihelion; in 1792, near the Aphelion; that is, in nearly the contrary part of the orbit. The former opposition having been accurately viewed in the Observatory of the Military School, the author employs it for the determination of the Apsides, comparing it with the observation of the former opposition. Having stated his result, he infers from it that the most scrupulous researches, and the nicest observations, will probably add little to the accuracy of the results which he has already obtained and expressed in the last edition of his *Astronomy*.

*Description of a new Compass, adapted to determine with the greatest precision the direction and absolute declination of the Magnetic Needle.* By J. DOMINII CASSINI.—Without the introduction of plates, it is not easy to give a description of this instrument; those, whom the invention interests, must consult the memoir itself.

*Observation of the Passage of Mercury over the Disc of the Sun, on the 18th Floreal, 7th Year.* By CHARLES MESSIER.

*On the Motion of Venus.* By J. LA LANDE. Two Memoirs.

*On the Motion of Mercury.* By the same.

These

These four papers do not properly admit of abridgment: they are in themselves very short, and interesting only for their details to the practical astronomer.

#### PHYSICAL PAPERS.

**HISTORY.** *Report on a Memoir of M. Proust, respecting different interesting points in Chemistry.* By M. VAUQUELIN. The memoir of M. Proust embraces a variety of unconnected topics; the first of which is a more simple method than the one usually adopted for procuring pure tannin. It consists in pouring the carbonate of pot-ash into an infusion of galls; by which means the tannin is separated, and falls down in a flaky form. The effect is conceived to be produced in consequence of the alkali abstracting from the infusion the water by which the tannin was before held in solution; and hence, to insure the success of the process, it is necessary that the least possible water should be used. The muriatic or sulphuric acids may also be employed to separate the tannin from the gallic acid; with either of them the tannin forms a thick pitchy substance no longer soluble in water; and the acid may be detached from the tannin by the addition of the alkali.—These remarks on tannin lead to some observations on the theory of the formation of ink. M. Proust considers this substance, according to the way in which it is usually composed, as consisting of the solution of the tannate and gallate of iron in the sulphuric acid: but he seems to prefer an ink formed by dissolving the oxyd of iron in the infusion of galls, to be made in the common manner by the sulphat of iron. The iron, he conceives, always exists in ink in the state of the red oxyd.

The next subject to which M. Proust directs his attention is a method for procuring the sulphuric acid from the residue left after the formation of the sulphuric ether. He has examined with some attention the charry matter which is extracted by this process; and he finds it to contain portions of lime and magnesia; so that, as he remarks, these earths appear to accompany the charcoal even when it enters into the composition of alcohol.—We have afterward some observations on phosphorus, and particularly on that reddish substance which is separated from newly distilled phosphorus by pressing it through leather; the same substance is also found in those vessels in which phosphoric acid has been formed. It is supposed to be a compound of phosphorus and carbonate.—Next ensue some remarks on the analysis of the native iron of Peru, which he finds to contain nickel; and he proposes that this compound should be formed for economical purposes, since it appears not to be liable to rust.

When

When zinc is dissolved by an acid, a black powder is precipitated, which has been thought to consist of the carbonat of iron: but M. *Proust* conjectures it to be a compound of arsenic, copper, and lead; he also supposes that zinc usually contains iron and magnesia. Zinc appears to be capable of forming only one oxyd, with whatever metal it may be combined, or in whatever acid it be dissolved.

These are the principal topics detailed in this valuable memoir; they convey important information on some very interesting parts of chemical science; the experiments are simple, but decisive; and the whole is marked by that acuteness which so eminently distinguishes the writings of the Spanish philosopher.

The next two papers are by M. *SABATIER*, containing his *Report of a memoir of M. Maunoir on the organization of the iris, and the operation for forming an artificial pupil, when by accident the natural aperture has been closed.*—M. *Maunoir* conceives that he has detected in the iris two distinct sets of fibres, one radiate and the other circular; these latter composing the inner part of the aperture. We are scarcely able, from the abstract here presented, to conclude how far we may depend on the observations; similar opinions have been supported by former anatomists, but have afterward been abandoned as untenable.

*Report of a Committee appointed to examine the Experiments of M. Achard, respecting the Sugar contained in the root of the Beet.* By M. *DREUX*.—This interesting paper commences with an account of the different experiments that have been instituted for the purpose of obtaining sugar in France, first by attempting to naturalize the cane, and afterward by planting the sugar maple. The cane acquired a sufficient size, and seemed to grow with vigor: but it was found that its juice was not so far matured as to contain the due proportion of saccharine matter; and with respect to the maple, the expense attending its cultivation renders its use inadmissible. *Margraff* had long ago shewn that the beet contained a very pure sugar: but he had not estimated its quantity with sufficient accuracy to enable him to point it out as an economical concern. This was lately done by M. *Achard*, who published a set of experiments on the subject; and who concluded from them that a pure sugar might be obtained from the beet at a moderate expense. The committee divide their remarks into three heads: in the first, they attempt to ascertain the exact quantity of sugar that is contained in the beet root; in the second, they examine the process recommended by *Achard*; and in the third, they endeavour to improve on this process.

In order to ascertain the proportion of sugar in the beet, a quantity of the roots was cut into small pieces, and digested for some time in alcohol; the latter being evaporated, the sugar was formed into a crystallized mass, while a substance like melasses was left behind. The proportion of sugar obtained was very considerable: but a process, in which a large quantity of alcohol is employed, could never be recommended as an economical method of forming sugar. The plan adopted by M. *Achard* was to boil the roots, then to break them down into a pulp, and afterward to successively strain and evaporate until all the sugar was separated. The committee imitated this process, and obtained a quantity of good sugar, but less in proportion to the weight of the roots employed than by the former method with alcohol. They also found that the beet sugar, by being refined, lost one-sixth more than the sugar from the cane. They tried a number of experiments with a view to the improvement of *Achard's* process; especially with the intention of separating from the juice a mucous substance, which seemed to be mixed with it, and to prevent its crystallization: but they were not successful; and the only suggestion which they offer is that the root should not be boiled, but should be rasped down into a kind of pulp. They conclude by endeavouring to form an estimate of the expense at which sugar could be furnished from the beet root; and after having made the necessary allowance, it appears to be somewhat more than the price at which common sugar is usually sold in France. They remark, however, that possibly by culture the juice of the Beet might be rendered more abundant in its saccharine impregnation.

*Report on the mode of escaping the Small Pox by the Vaccine Inoculation.* By M. *HALLÉ*.—This author traces the history of vaccination, from its first discovery by Jenner to its general adoption in France; he describes the appearance and progress of the pustules; and he relates at some length the trials that were instituted to ascertain its preservative power. He afterward notices those circumstances which have produced a want of success in the operation; which he reduces to three heads; first, when the pustule produced does not exhibit the characters of the true disease; secondly, when diseases have succeeded which have been thought to be the small pox, but were not so in reality; and lastly, when the small pox has been developed at the same time with the vaccine, in consequence of the patient having been previously exposed to the contagion. The paper contains much useful matter: but the subject has been so fully discussed in this country, and is so generally understood, that we shall not dwell on it.

**MEMOIRS.**—*Second Memoir on the Physical Structure of the Hill of Montmartre, and other corresponding hills.* By M. DESMAREST.—The quarry of Montmartre exhibits a great number of regular, prismatic strata of the gypseous or marley earths, which the author here describes with considerable minuteness. In a former memoir, he had explained his ideas respecting the manner of their formation by gradual subsidence; and he endeavours to shew that the actual appearances correspond with his hypothesis. The English reader will be somewhat amused, and probably puzzled, with the names given by the workmen to the different layers; many of which bear but a very remote resemblance to the objects from which they have received their denominations.

*Second Memoir on the Anomaly which takes place in the change of bases of two Salts by lowering the temperature.* By M. GUYTON.—It had been observed by *Scheele* that, when the solutions of the sulphat of soda and the muriat of magnesia were mixed together at an ordinary temperature, no particular effect ensued: but that, if the mixture was cooled below the freezing point, a mutual decomposition took place, and the new compounds remained permanent, although the temperature was again elevated; and there are other salts which exhibit the same phenomena. The effect is obviously produced by the extrication of caloric; it has been ascribed to the expansive force of freezing water: but this supposition cannot be admitted, because the decomposition takes place before the freezing commences, and in course before the change of bulk is produced. M. GUYTON endeavours to explain the effect by supposing that, in consequence of the passage of the caloric out of each molecule of salt, a motion is produced; and the external parts, which first become cooled, not exercising so much pressure on the internal, leave them to form new compounds; when, as in the case before us, the quiescent and divellent affinities were previously almost exactly balanced.

*Memoir on the method of preparing Morocco Leather at Fez and Tetuan.* By M. BROUSSONET.—This substance is formed from the skins of goats; and the best kind is manufactured at Fez. Before the skins undergo the operation of tanning, they are stained with cochineal and alum. The tan is procured from the bark of a native tree, the botanical characters of which do not appear to be accurately ascertained. One part of the process consists in keeping the skins immersed for some time in water, with a quantity of unripe figs. The yellow morocco is dyed with the pomegranate rind and alum.

*On the Decomposition of the calcareous Marine Salts, by means of lime, fixed alkali, and volatile alkali.* By M. BAUMÉ.—There appears

appears to us very considerable confusion in this paper, arising probably in part from a want of precision in the terms employed. The author, however, seems to entertain very peculiar opinions respecting the nature of the earthy bodies ;—if we are not deceived in his meaning, he affirms that they may be converted into each other, both by the gradual operation of time and by the process of calcination.

*Experiments on a viscid substance which collects on the branches of the Robinia Viscosa.* By M. VAUQUELIN.—This substance was found not to be affected either by water or by alcohol, but to be easily soluble in ether. From a consideration of its properties, the author concludes that it differs in some respects from any vegetable substance hitherto examined. In the two next memoirs, we have an account of the plant from which this substance is procured ; the first by M. CELS, the second by M. VENTENAT.

*Reflections on a disease of Rye, and the dreadful destruction of Trees.* By M. ROUGIER LABERGIER.—In the disease which is here considered, parts of the plant become of a red colour ; which is imagined by the author to be produced by cold winds coming on the plants when nearly in blossom, after a moist or foggy spring. He describes the effects of the disease at length, and supposes that it may be in some measure obviated by sowing the land, which is exposed to the north-east, later than is now usually done ; and by forming a shelter for it by hedges or plantations. He speaks of the great destruction which the woods of France have lately undergone from various causes, principally depending on the events of the revolution ; and he earnestly calls on the government to endeavour to remedy the grievance.

*Memoir on the cultivation and economical uses of the Date-bearing Palm.* By M. DESFONTAINES.—We have here a long and (as far as we can judge) an accurate description of the properties, culture, and uses of this plant ; which, in the number of people to whom it affords nourishment, may vie with any of the corn-bearing tribes.

*Reflections on the decomposition of the Muriat of Soda by the Oxyd of Lead.* By M. VAUQUELIN.—The fact that common salt may be decomposed by the oxyd of lead, its acid being united to the lead, while the soda is disengaged in a state of purity, has been long known, but has not been very satisfactorily explained. The present author, by carefully examining the results of the operation in its different stages, and after its termination, concludes that the effect is produced in consequence of the affinity of the muriat of lead for an excess of oxyd ; this excess of oxyd also rendering the compound insoluble in water,  
and

and giving to it the fine yellow colour. Although it be true, however, that a muriat of lead with an excess of oxyd is formed, and that it possesses the properties here ascribed to it, we have some doubt how far it can be supposed to be instrumental in effecting the decomposition.

*Experiments on the Oxyds of Lead, especially the Brown Oxyd. By the same.*—This oxyd is formed by the action of the nitric acid on minium, or by exposing white lead to the oxygenated muriatic acid gas. The properties of the substance are detailed, and we have some experiments to determine the quantity of oxygen in this and the other oxyds of lead. M. VAUQUELIN thinks that *Bergmann* and *Klaproth* have estimated the quantity of oxygen in white lead too highly, and that it contains only 7 per cent. ; the oxygen in the red he calculates at 9 ; and that in the brown oxyd at 21 per cent.

The next memoir, by M. VILLARS, gives an account of *some specimens of Fossil Wood, larch, birch, and aspin, found in the mountains of Lans, at a great elevation.*—It appears from their position that these substances could not have been transported to the place in question, and yet there are no woods now found nearly so high. Hence it is rendered probable that the mountains must at some period have been warmer than they are at present ; a circumstance which the author principally ascribes to their having been formerly much more covered with forests. The wood was found imbedded in peat ; which, together with the low temperature, was probably the cause of its long preservation.

*Extract from a Memoir on the Marine of Venice.* By M. FORFEIT.—This very long paper contains some curious and interesting matter, but we think that it is not of a nature exactly suited to the collection in which it is inserted. It gives a very particular account of the geographical situation of Venice, its marshy islands or lagunes, its canals, the method which is adopted for preserving them in order, the arsenal, the military and civil establishment for the marine, the management of the forests, and the maritime festivals. On each of these topics, the author dwells with much minuteness.

*Memoir on the application of the Steam Engine to the drawing of Coals from the Pits.* By M. PERIER.—The object of this paper is sufficiently expressed in the title. In order to accomplish it, the author proposes a piece of mechanism, by which, whenever the cylinder is stopped, its motion will be reversed ; and in this manner the buckets will be kept alternately ascending and descending, as in the usual way when horses are employed.

*On a method for superseding the operation of amputating the Arm at the Shoulder Joint.* By M. SABATIER.—The author observes that, where the head of the humerus has been fractured,

or otherwise injured by any accidental circumstance, amputation has been rendered unnecessary by extracting the broken pieces of bone. This plan, however, cannot be adopted where the whole bone is in a state of disease: but in this case he thinks that amputation is not requisite; and he grounds his opinion on some instances in which a considerable part of the humerus has been removed, and the limb has recovered in a great measure its former motion. The only cases, in which he considers amputation at the shoulder to be necessary, are a complete sphacelus of the arm, and a carious state of the whole or the greatest part of the bone. He might have added those instances of very extensive injury to the arm, in which the whole limb is crushed or shattered; as in cases of gun-shot wounds, or of the arm being entangled in heavy machinery.

*Notice respecting Uranite, and its discovery in France.* By M. LÉLIEVRE.—As this mineral had not before been found out of Germany, the principal object of the present paper is to give an account of its discovery in one of the departments of France.

*Memoir on the Red Tinge which the Snow sometimes exhibits on high mountains.* By M. RAMOND.—Saussure first noticed this phenomenon, but was unable satisfactorily to account for it; he was, however, inclined to think that it depended on the farina of some cryptogameous plant. The author of the memorial before us has lately met with the same appearance in the Pyrenees; and by an attentive examination he has discovered it to be produced by the decomposition of a micaceous rock, the small particles of which are carried by the winds over the snow, and cause this red appearance.

*Description of the process of fusing the Silver Ore at Allemont.* By M. SCHREIBER.—This paper contains a minute detail of the operation, which will no doubt be useful and interesting to the manufacturer, but scarcely to the general reader.

*Notice concerning the reduction of the muriat of Silver by the contact of Iron.* By M. SAGE.—The writer here relates an instance in which this decomposition occurred in consequence of the two substances being accidentally placed in contact.

The physical memoirs contained in this volume, as the reader must have perceived, though many of them furnish useful information, are not of that importance which we have observed on former occasions. We think, indeed, that they afford rather an unfavourable specimen of the state of science in France; since we cannot but regard the National Institute as the grand depositary of all the discoveries and improvements which are produced in that country.—We reserve for another article the consideration of the volume relative to *Literature and the Arts*.

ART. II. *Histoire de la Medecine Clinique, &c. ; i. e. A History of Clinical Medicine, from its origin to the present time; with important inquiries respecting the existence, nature, and communication of Syphilitic Diseases in Pregnant Women, in Newly-born Infants, and in Nurses.* By P. A. O. MAHON, M. D. &c. &c. Also the manner of treating Syphilitic Complaints in Pregnant Women, Infants, and Nurses. By LOUIS LA MAUVE, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 520. Paris, 1804. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 8s. sewed.

THE deceased author of this volume is already known to the world by his treatise on Legal Medicine, published about three years ago\*, which indicated a considerable share of learning and ability; and his reputation will not be diminished by the production now before us. It consists of two parts, a history of Medicine, from the earliest period to the middle of the last century, and a treatise on the Venereal Disease, as it exists in newly-born Children.

The history of Medicine is divided into five chapters, corresponding with the five most remarkable epochs of the science. The first comprehends the period from the origin of Medicine to the children of Hippocrates, extending from the fabulous ages to the 37th century: the second brings us down to Galen, i. e. from the 37th century to the 41st., or the second of the Christian era, inclusive: the third, from Galen to the revival of letters, extends from the second to the fifteenth century of the Christian era, inclusive: the fourth details the history of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries; and the fifth and last epoch contains the account of the eighteenth century.

As to the early part of the history of this science, it presents little that can interest the well-informed reader. The first traces of it, on which we can place any dependence, are to be found among the Egyptians; whence it was transplanted, with the rest of their knowledge, to the propitious soil of Greece. It is useless to inquire who was the inventor of Medicine; since it is an art which gradually rose out of the necessities of mankind, of which even the earliest periods of society and the most barbarous people exhibit some indications, however extravagant or inefficient. Over this part of the subject, the author judiciously passes with rapidity, and brings us to the time at which the genius of Hippocrates first reduced Medicine to the form of a science, and established it on the basis of reason and experience. M. MAHON presents us with a detailed and perspicuous account of the doctrines of this distinguished philosopher, of his hypotheses respecting the constitution of the

\* See Review Vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 507.

human body, of the opinions which he entertained respecting the most important diseases, and of the practice which he pursued in their treatment.

He commences with an exposition of the doctrine of Hippocrates with regard to fever; which introduces a view of his ideas concerning the humors of the body; their coction in the state of health, and the defect of this operation in disease; the phenomena of the different secretions, on which he built so much of his practice and prognosis; and the disputed question of the critical days. As to the opinions themselves, it is not our business to criticize them: but M. MAHON's account of them appears to us correct and perspicuous, considerably minute, yet not unnecessarily protracted.

In the same style, the author pursues his statement of the practice of Hippocrates in fever; giving an account of the scrupulous attention which he paid to the regimen of his patients, the extensive employment of his pisan, the effects which he expected to result from its use, (and which in the present day we cannot but consider as exaggerated,) his theoretical objections to cold water as a beverage in fever, his singular or rather fanciful notions of the effects of his oxymel and hydromel, and the precise directions which he laid down respecting the employment of bleeding and other evacuations. After a view of the doctrines and opinions of this great man relative to the other diseases which are treated in his work, M. MAHON enters into a detail of the art which Hippocrates had acquired in prognosticating the event of diseases; and which, as it appears, 'he possessed in a degree to which few of his successors have attained.' The account of this ancient and celebrated physician concludes with an eulogy, in which we believe our readers will, for the most part, be disposed to acquiesce:

'Such is the summary of the Clinical system of Hippocrates; a system in which, after two thousand years of labor, we have only been able to discover some faults in the detail; an experimental system, admirable for the genius which united its different parts, and the relations of which physicians alone can appreciate, through the disjointed fragments which compose the immortal works of this ancient Greek: a system forgotten by the vulgar, but verified at all times and in all countries; for which the Eastern adage seems to have been formed, "*The arts may all be the work of men, but Medicine appears to have proceeded from the hands of the Gods.*" But probably this language will appear dictated by enthusiasm; let us then search for the praises of Hippocrates in the history of his successors.'

When we have been contemplating the great advances of Medicine while directed by the genius of Hippocrates, it is melancholy to observe that, after his death, so far from proceeding

ceeding in the same course, it even became retrograde. The tendency which mankind have at all times possessed, to search into the causes of the events which surround them, is peculiarly conspicuous in this science; and, by withdrawing the attention from the observance of facts, it has very materially retarded the progress of medical knowledge. Plato and Aristotle, notwithstanding the celebrity of their names, must be regarded as among the first corrupters of this branch of science; since, not contented with extending and correcting the observations of their predecessors, 'they invented systems which were more fatal to true knowledge than the ravages of the Goths and Saracens. Plato changed natural philosophy, and the study of science, into metaphysical and chimerical subtleties; Aristotle formed them into a scholastic jargon, full of syllogisms, captious theses, and logical chicanery. Their systems became not only fashionable in Greece, but reigned despotically at Rome, and in the dark ages of Gothic, Arabian, and Ecclesiastical barbarity: they mixed themselves with all the different systems of literature, and prevented men from pursuing the only certain road to science, viz. experiment and observation.'

From this period, medicine presents us with little more than a series of hypotheses and conjectures; with the singularity of which we might be amused, were we not led to reflect on the fatal influence which they exercised over the practice of its professors. Different sects arose, each vehement in the defence of its peculiar tenets, and each equally remote from truth and nature. In this state, Medicine continued among the Greeks; until, on the decline of their power, it passed over, with the other arts and sciences, into the Roman republic. The Romans, in the early part of their history, systematically despised all philosophical pursuits, and appear to have treated Grecian medicine with peculiar contempt; so that, at the time when their political power had reached its acmé, this science still remained in its most barbarous state; and it was not until their empire had manifested symptoms of decay, that medicine was rescued from its abject condition by the writings of Celsus. M. MAHON lays before us a view of the works of this distinguished physician, detailed in his usual style of perspicuity; and he institutes a comparison between the practice of Hippocrates and that of Celsus, in the cure of fever; from which we learn that, if the latter in some respects falls short of the sagacity of his great master, he had the wisdom to discard those hypothetical doctrines of coction and crises, which had been laid down by the former.

The writings of Celsus seem, however, to have made but little impression on the general practice of medicine at Rome, and it had quickly relapsed into its former state, when Galen appeared; who, if not the greatest of physicians, was at least the one whose doctrines obtained the most universal and lasting sway over the minds of his successors. He professed to illustrate and confirm the leading tenets of Hippocrates: but he added so much original hypothesis, as almost to overwhelm the simple system of his master by his multifarious appendages. His voluminous works treat on almost every subject connected with the science of Medicine; and his speculations are so abstruse and complicated, as to render it impossible to follow him through all his intricacies in the short compass of the present work. M. MAHON appears, however, to have selected with judgment the leading points of doctrine, and to have stated them in a clear and intelligible manner.

Chapter 3d. contains an account of the Alexandrian school, in which the science of Medicine flourished after the decay of the Roman empire, until the capture of this city by the Saracens; and we are afterward furnished with a view of the progress which it made among the Arabians, at a time when Europe was involved in ignorance and barbarity.

About the termination of the 14th century, a taste for science began to revive, after a long interval of perfect apathy; and the favourable impulse given to the human mind was felt by Medicine, as well as by the other branches of natural philosophy. In his 4th chapter, the author traces in an interesting manner the gradual development of medical science in the different parts of Europe, and particularly in France, where it appears to have been studied with great assiduity. He introduces an account of the eccentricities of Paracelsus, and his followers, the chemical physicians; of the metaphysical hypothesis of Stahl; and of the learned, though misplaced labours of the mathematical physiologists:—a sect which seems to have been principally of English growth. Thus circumstanced was the science, rather encumbered than illustrated by the application of different kinds of learning, and still under the trammels of the Galenic doctrines, when the illustrious Sydenham arose; one of those men, says the author, '*dont Nature est avare.*' He bestows on our countryman the tribute of applause to which he is so justly intitled, and draws a view of his peculiar tenets. He then notices the favourable effects which were produced on the science of medicine by the philosophical labours of Boyle and Bacon, and concludes the chapter by an account of the singular aberration of the human judgment which

which took place with respect to the supposed medical virtues of magnetism.

The 5th chapter professes to bring down the history of medicine to the present period, but, as we are informed by the editor, was left imperfect. It contains, however, an ample account of the doctrines of Boerhaave, and the learned labours of his numerous pupils.

We have perused this treatise with interest and satisfaction. It is indeed rather to be considered as a judicious sketch than an elaborate history, but it contains a large portion of information, well selected and expressed. Whether M. MAHON had recourse to the original authorities, or whether he derived his materials from other works of a similar kind, we are not able to decide. He frequently refers to Le Clerc and Freind, but he does not appear to have borrowed from either of them in an unreasonable degree. We must express our regret at the total want of references to the authors whose opinions he details; and we shall also point out another defect, which, though not of the first magnitude, is still too weighty to be overlooked; we refer to the frequent inaccuracy in the spelling of proper names. Among the moderns, and particularly the English, such gross mistakes occur, that we were sometimes at a loss to recognize our most familiar acquaintance.

The second treatise in this volume contains researches concerning the existence, nature, and communication of syphilitic diseases in pregnant women, in infants, and in nurses; which M. MAHON commences by giving a full view of the opinions that have been entertained by the different authors who have written on this subject. The doctrines of Mr. Hunter, both on account of their singularity, and from the respect due to so eminent an authority, are discussed with considerable minuteness; and all the objections that have been urged against the commonly received opinions, either by himself or by those who have adopted his ideas, are individually combated. The author examines at full length the cases brought forwards by Mr. Hunter in support of his peculiar hypothesis, and deems himself warranted in deducing from them a different and indeed opposite conclusion. His method of reasoning appears to us candid and judicious; and though he dissents from Mr. Hunter so materially, he every where speaks of him with the highest respect. The practical part of this treatise, which was left unfinished in consequence of the premature death of M. MAHON, has been added by M. LA MAUVE.

ART. III. *Principes Fondamentaux de l'Equilibre et du Mouvement, &c. i. e. Fundamental Principles of Equilibrium and Motion.* By L. N. CARNOT; of the National Institute of France, of the Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Literature at Dijon, &c. 8vo. Paris. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 6s. sewed.

AN edition of this work first made its appearance in 1786, under the title of *Essai sur les Machines en général*, and was printed at Dijon, when its author was an officer under the French Monarchy. The new impression, now on our table, is more clear and particular than the former, is more skilfully arranged, and contains some new matter: but, even with its present alterations and elucidations, it will perhaps, in various instances, defy the comprehension of many mathematical students. It is indeed less abstruse and perplexed than the works of *La Place* and *La Grange*, but it is too general in its formulas and principles, and too barren of examples and illustrations.

In the *Essai sur les Machines*, &c. M. CARNOT called the attention of Mathematicians to what he termed his *geometrical movements*: geometrical, because they can be determined by the aid of geometry solely, and are entirely independent of the rules of Dynamics. These movements in no respect alter the mutual action of bodies, and depend on the manner by which the several parts of the system are connected.—In the former edition, as well as in the present, the author establishes his positions by many reasonings and examples. If two bodies, *A.* and *B.* hang over a pulley, and a motion be communicated, such that *A.* shall descend through a space equal to that through which *B.* ascends, then is such motion, according to the definition and the author's meaning, *geometrical*: it does not affect the mutual action of the bodies; a motion directly opposite may be impressed; and the motion, with regard to its quantity and direction, may be determined by geometry alone.

Since the time of *John Bernoulli*, *virtual velocities*, as they are called, have acted a grand part in the doctrine of equilibrium; and that great mathematician defines and employs them in his *Discours sur le Mouvement*. M. *La Grange* has since constructed his *Mecanique Analytique* on the principle of virtual velocities; and he has laid down formulas, adequate (according to the learned author) to the solution of all problems that can arise concerning the equilibrium of a system of bodies.

The geometrical movements of M. CARNOT are intended to supersede the virtual velocities of *La Grange*; and in his 9th theorem the author announces that '*tout mouvement virtuel dans un système quelconque de corps est necessairement géométrique*:'  
virtual

virtual movements and velocities being defined as *Bernouilli* and *La Grange* have defined them.

We have paid considerable attention to this doctrine of geometrical movements, intermediate between geometry and dynamics: but we do not perceive its great utility, nor indeed the necessity of such a doctrine. It is right, however, that the author should, on this subject, be suffered to speak for himself:

‘By these explanations, it appears to me that the nature of those motions called geometrical may be clearly understood. The term applies without distinction to all kinds of bodies, hard, soft, elastic, solid or fluid. This denomination of geometrical motions is founded on the circumstance of such motions having no effect on the action, which may take place among the bodies of the system: such motions, therefore, are independent of the rules of Dynamics. For if we conceive a system, the parts of which are in simple repose and not in equilibrium;—that is to say, such that between the contiguous parts there is only a simple juxtaposition, without shock, pressure, or any mutual action:—then, whatever geometrical motion be given to the system, such motion shall experience no alteration; since, if any portion whatever of this motion were destroyed, this could only happen because the bodies of the system could not take it, except by mutually disturbing each other; that is, except by exercising, the one on the other, a mutual action. — But this is contrary to the hypothesis; since it is the nature of these geometrical motions *not* to excite a mutual action between bodies. These motions, then, are absolutely unaffected by the rules of Dynamics. They depend solely on the conditions of the connexion between the parts of the system, and consequently can be determined by geometry alone; and for this reason I call them geometrical motions.

‘The theory of geometrical movements is very important. It is, as I have observed elsewhere, (See *Geometry of Position*) a kind of intermediate science between ordinary geometry and mechanics. It is the theory of motions, which any system of bodies may take without reciprocally disturbing each other; without exercising, the one on the other, any action or re-action whatever. This science has never been specially treated: it is entirely to be created; and it merits, on account of its beauty as well as its utility, the attention of the learned. The great analytical difficulties, which occur in mechanics, and especially in hydraulics, have arisen because this science has not been established.’

Instead of virtual velocities, M. CARNOT employs (as we have observed) geometrical movements. In this respect, he does not differ much from M. *La Grange*, but more in the manner by which he obtains the fundamental equations that appertain to equilibrium and motion, and in which he describes their laws. On the principle of virtual velocities, M. *La Grange* lays down, as his fundamental equation,  $Pdp + Qdq + Rdr$ , &c. = 0, the forces being  $P$ ,  $Q$ ,  $R$ , and  $dp$ ,  $dq$ ,  $dr$ , being the infinitesimal

nal spaces that represent the virtual velocities. M. CARNOT obtains what he calls his fundamental equations, which determine the laws of the motion of bodies, when the changes in such motions are finite and sudden; after which the equations for the motion of bodies, when the changes in such motion are gradual, are included in the original equations, or may be immediately deduced from them. Thus, if  $M$  be the mass of a body,  $U$  its loss of velocity,  $V$  the velocity after impact; then,  $S$  being the symbol for the sum,  $S. MUV. \cos. V^{\wedge}U = 0$ ;  $\cos. V^{\wedge}U$  meaning, according to a new notation of the author, the co-sine of the angle included between the directions of  $V$  and  $U$ .—This is the form for hard bodies changing their motions by sudden impulses or shocks. Suppose the change of motion to be gradual, and  $P$  to be an accelerating force, then if  $V$  be the velocity at the end of the first instant of time, and  $V+dV$  at the end of the second, the forces destroyed  $= dV - Pdt$ , which is to be put for  $U$  in the equation  $S. MUV = 0$ . Thence  $S. MVdV - S. M. PV. dt = 0$ ; or, in case of the directions of  $P$  and  $V$  being different,  $S. UVdV - S. MVP. dt. \cos. P^{\wedge}V = 0$ : or, since  $Vdt = ds$  ( $ds$  the differential of the space,)  $S. MVdV - S. M. PdV \cos. P^{\wedge}V = 0$ .

This equation may, by the introduction of three rectangular co-ordinates, be easily translated into the equations which *La Place* has given in page 51 of his *Mécanique Céleste*, and *La Grange* in page 195 of his *Mécanique Analytique*.

The method of proving this fundamental equation, viz,

$$SMUV. \cos. V^{\wedge}U = 0,$$

$$\text{or } MUV \cos. V^{\wedge}U + M'UV' \cos. V'^{\wedge}U' + \&c. = 0,$$

differs from that which M. CARNOT has employed in his former work. We prefer the new mode of proof to the preceding but we by no means approve the transition from this form to the formula for the motion of bodies changing their motion by insensible degrees. The connection is forced, instead of natural and obvious; and the author, for the sake of a specious generality, has made great sacrifices of simplicity, and indeed of exactness. He begins with the hypothesis of the impact of hard spherical bodies; thence he passes to the case of the communication of motion from one body to another, by means of intermediate bodies; and finally, all motion is supposed to be communicated by the fictitious interference of imaginary spherical bodies. There may be generality in this, but surely it is confusion. Many things may be connected together, but they are connected by means of a forced and unnatural alliance; and it is better, on the grounds of simplicity, of facility, and

and of exactness, to keep separate those things which are dissimilar. Very few mathematicians have equalled *D'Alembert* in clearness and method; for he separated things as they are separated by nature, and by our notions. "*Les corps* (says he) *n'agissent les uns sur les autres que de trois manières différentes que nous soient connus: ou par impulsion intermédiaire, comme dans le choc ordinaire; ou par le moyen de quelque corps interposé entr'eux, et auquel ils sont attachés: ou enfin par une vertu d'attraction réciproque, comme sont dans le système Newtonien le soleil et les planètes.*" &c. *Dynamique*, p. 73.

The equation  $S.MUV \cos. V^A U = 0$  is, however, of great use; since it enables the author to demonstrate, very elegantly, the quantity of the destruction of the *vis viva* (*de perdition des forces vives*) that happens in the impact of hard bodies. Thus, suppose  $W$  to be the velocity before impact,  $V$  after impact, and  $U$  to be the velocity lost, then  $W^2 = V^2 + U^2 + 2V.U \cos. V^A U$ . Consequently,  $S.MW^2 = S.MV^2 + S.M.U^2 + 2SMVU \cos. V^A U$ ; but, since  $SMVU \cos. V^A U = 0$

$$S.MW^2 = S.MV^2 + S.MU^2;$$

a theorem of great elegance, noticed by *M. La Grange* in his *Fonctions Analytiques*, and demonstrated by that mathematician in a different manner.

In bodies perfectly elastic,  $SMW^2 = SMV^2$ ; that is, in the impact of such bodies, the law called *Conservatio Virium Vivarum* holds place, as it does in a system of bodies changing their motions by insensible degrees. The mode by which *M. CARNOT* proves this theorem does not please us; in fact, the method of demonstration is unsatisfactory. We refer the mathematical reader to page 156.

We cannot dismiss this part of the subject without noticing what to us appears an error in *M. CARNOT*. At page 141, he says, "*le premier terme du second membre de la première Equation, exprime évidemment la quantité de mouvement imprimée à A par B, estimée dans la vitesse de A après le choc*, &c. The *premier terme du second membre*, &c. is, in fact,  $A.U.V \cos. V^A U$ ,  $U$  being the velocity communicated by  $B$  to  $A$ , and  $V$  being  $A$ 's velocity. Now this term is not the quantity of motion, either according to the usual and ordinary definitions, or according to the author's own definition.

The demonstration of the *Conservatio Virium Vivarum* is effected with great neatness by means of the author's form,

$$S.m P ds \cos. P^A ds - S.m V dV = 0.$$

from which expression he deduces this theorem; that if  $K$  be the initial velocity, and  $U$  the velocity that would be generated  
were

were the several parts of the system to move freely along the paths which they describe, acted on by the same moving force,

$$\text{then } SmV^2 = S.mU^2 + S.mK^2$$

or, not using the symbol  $S$ ,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} mV^2 + m'V'^2 + m''V''^2 + \&c. = mU^2 + m'U'^2 + \&c. \\ &+ mK^2 + m'K'^2 + \&c. \end{aligned} \right\}$$

The theory of the *Vires Vivæ* (a very important theory in practical mechanics) is due to *Leibnitz*: but it received improvement from *John Bernoulli*, who expressly treated of it in his *Discours sur le Mouvement*; and who, in other tracts, applied its principle with success to the solution of several difficult problems. He incurred, as well as *Leibnitz*, much unmerited opposition on account of this theory; and, which is remarkable, even in later times some mathematicians seem not to have distinctly understood its nature and utility.—In the *Mécanique Celeste* and *Analytique*, the differential equations which involve the laws of a body's motion are expressed by means of three rectangular co-ordinates; and M. CARNOT, by the use of an easy theorem, shews how his equations may be transformed into equations similar to those that are employed by *La Grange* and *La Place*.

Towards the latter part of this work, we find several judicious and interesting remarks on the application of moving forces to machines. The author here mentions, but briefly, (and they deserve not a long consideration,) the disputes concerning the measure of the force of a body in motion. In mathematical controversies, as in others, ambiguous words and loose expressions are for ever setting snares to entrap our understandings. The effect of a power, or of a weight, what is it? By means of a lever, a weight  $W$  may be made to balance  $2W$ ,  $3W$ ,  $mW$ . It may then be said that the effect of a weight  $W$  is increased by the artifice of a lever, two-fold, three-fold, an hundred fold. Such language may be used in the case of one weight being in equilibrio with another weight: but if the weight  $W$  descends through a space  $S$ , what shall we say of the effect of this moving weight? If the effect be measured by the product of the mass and the space described, such effect can by no mechanical contrivance be increased, but must ever remain the same. If, in a state of equilibrium,  $W$  be made to balance  $100W$ , while the latter describes a space  $S$ , the former must describe a space equal to  $100S$ ; so that, in every machine, the principle holds good, that what we gain in force we lose in time or in velocity.

‘The advantage, (says M. CARNOT,) which results from machines, depends not on the circumstance of the production of great effects

effects with small means, but on that of affording us the power of selecting, among different means, that which may be called equal, or that which is most suitable to the existing circumstances. To force a weight  $P$  to ascend to a proposed height,—a spring to contract itself through a certain space,—a body to take by insensible degrees a given motion,—or finally any other agent whatever to absorb a given moment of activity;—it is necessary that the moving forces destined to this purpose should themselves consume a moment of activity equal to the former. The machine can be absolved from this law: but as this moment results from several terms or factors, it may be made to vary at pleasure, by diminishing the force at the expence of the time, or the velocity at the expence of the force: or, in employing two or more forces instead of one:—a circumstance, which supplies an infinitude of resources for the production of the necessary moment of activity. Whatever be done, it is necessary that these means should be equal; that is to say, that the moment of activity consumed by the soliciting forces be equal to the effect, or the moment absorbed in the same time by the resisting forces.

‘These reflections should seem sufficient to undeceive those who think that, with machines furnished with levers mysteriously arranged, we may enable an agent, be it ever so feeble, to produce the greatest effects. The error proceeds from this, that we are persuaded that it is possible to apply to machines in motion what is only true for a case of equilibrium: and because a small power, for example, may be made to balance a great weight, many persons are inclined to believe that it may be also made to elevate the weight as quickly as we please: but this is a great mistake, since, in order, to succeed, it is necessary that the agent procure for itself a velocity above its faculties; or which at least would cause it to lose a part of its effect on the machine, so much the greater, the more quickly it were obliged to move. Hence the reason why the effect of machines in motion is always so limited, that it can never surpass the moment of activity consumed by the agent which produces it.’

The author makes several other judicious remarks on the same subject; and he then turns his attention, although in a small degree only, to a very interesting inquiry, namely, the method of economizing the action of men and animals. On this occasion, he controverts (as M. *Coulomb* had done before him,) an opinion of *Daniel Bernouilli*, that the fatigue experienced is always proportionate to the quantity of action. The memoir of M. *Coulomb* has been already noticed by us, as containing many interesting experiments and discussions\*.

After having ingeniously commented on the saying attributed to Archimedes, (*da mihi punctum, &c.*) M. CARNOT proceeds to ask:

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\* See Rev. Vol. xxxv. p. 539.

‘What is the true and legitimate object of machines in motion? We have already said, it is that of procuring the power of varying at will the terms of the quantity  $FVT$  ( $F$ =forces  $V$ =velocity,  $T$ =time), or the moment of activity that must be consumed by the moving forces. If the time be precious, so that it is necessary that the effect shall be produced very quickly, and we have a force of great intensity but of small velocity only, it will be possible to find a machine that shall supply, by the intensity of its force, the necessary velocity. If, on the contrary, we have only a feeble power at our disposal, but a power capable of a great velocity, we shall be enabled to imagine a machine with which the agent shall be capable of compensating by velocity for its deficiency of force. Finally, if the power be endowed neither with great intensity nor with great velocity, we shall be able, with an appropriate machine, to produce the desired effect: but then we must infallibly employ more time. Since, in fine, we cannot migrate out of this circle, it is absolutely necessary that the product  $FVT$  be always equal to the effect which we wish to produce; and it is in this precisely that consists the principle so celebrated and important, that, in machines in motion, what is gained in force is always lost in time or in velocity.’

We shall finish our extracts with one more passage, which contains very judicious reflections; and which we select principally because, on the subject of it, some of our own mathematicians seem not sufficiently clear and precise.

‘The quantity  $PH$ , ( $P$  a weight,  $H$  the space described,) which we have previously considered as the effect capable of producing other effects, is what we have called a latent *vis viva*: for, if we call  $M$  the mass of the weight  $P$ , and  $V$  the velocity due to the height  $H$ , we shall have  $PH = \frac{1}{2} MV^2$ .

‘It is the same with every other effect produced by moving forces applied to a machine. We may always compare that effect to a weight to be elevated to a certain height, and consequently to a *force vive*, real or latent. Thus for example, to compress a spring through a given space,—to compress a given quantity of air, so as to occupy such or such capacity,—to reduce into flour a certain quantity of grain,—to draw a chariot, of a given weight, from one given place to another, on a road, the roughness of which is also stated—to make an excavation of a given extent, by throwing up the soil in a given place,—to make a given void in water to a given depth,—to excite in a body or in a system of bodies a given motion,—all these are effects which may be estimated in terms of *forces vives*: but it is by effects of this kind, that we must judge of the ability of moving forces, such as men, streams of water, or impulses of wind; and hence the reason why several learned men, following *Leibnitz*’s opinion, have thought that the force of bodies in motion ought to be estimated differently from the force of bodies at rest. They have judged that the force of the latter was simply the product of their mass and of their tendency to motion; while that of the others ought to be estimated by the product of the mass and the squares of the velocities. It is clear, as we have already observed, that all this is arbitrary

bitrary, and that we shall always arrive at the same results, provided that we reason conformably to the definitions which we lay down.

‘But whatever are the denominations that we adopt, the consideration of what are called *forces vives* must always be very important in the theory of machines in motion; since it is that theory which is adapted to appreciate the labour of men and animals, as well as of other agents that may be compared to them.’

This work of M. CARNOT is by no means of a *médiocre* character; and it intitles him to more credit than his late ponderous quarto on the *Geometry of Position*: but in that, as well as in the present volume, we notice a tendency to multiply denominations. ‘Moment of activity consumed, moment of activity absorbed,’ &c. terms such as these occur,—not vaguely, for the author defines them, but perhaps unnecessarily, since no new truth results from their employment; nor are laws and results more clearly or concisely expressed by them. In this respect, the author falls into the error which he blames in *Maupepertuis* and others, that of elevating into active and efficient causes the simple results of calculation, or the formulas which express certain laws in Dynamics.

M. CARNOT did not intend this publication, as he himself declares, to be a treatise on mechanics: but we wish that he had made it such a treatise; and with small additional trouble he might have so done. As it stands now, it is difficult to characterize it, or to state its precise and specific utility. Many parts are purely elementary, containing discussions, and the testimonies of experiment and observation with regard to the laws of motion: but then between these discussions and the other parts of the work, we find an abrupt and wide interval, which no one, without much previous knowledge, and a familiarity with the very subjects that are treated, can properly fill.

On the whole, this treatise may be pronounced to be an able performance. If it cannot be of great use to the young student, the inquisitive and learned mathematician will find in it many things which will rouse his attention, and reward him for the study of its pages.

ART. IV. *Traité de Mécanique Celeste*, &c. i. e. A Treatise on Celestial Mechanics. By M. LA PLACE, Chancellor of the Conservative Senate, Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour, Member of the Institute, &c. Vol. IV\*. 4to. Paris. 1825. Imported by Dr Boffe, London.

THE former volumes of this publication having contained the theories of the planets and of the moon, the object of the

\* See Rev. Vol. xl. N. S. p. 491.

present is the theory of the satellites and of the comets; and of the satellites, those of Jupiter are undoubtedly the most interesting. Observations on these moons have only been made about two centuries: but, in this short interval, they present, by the quickness of their revolutions, all those great changes which time develops only with extreme slowness in the planetary system, of which the system of satellites is the image. Their principal inequalities are known from their frequent eclipses, with a precision which had never been obtained from the observed elongations of these stars from Jupiter. In order to give the theory of these inequalities, M. LA PLACE expands the differential equations of their motions. They differ little from those of the planets and of the moon: yet the relations that subsist between the mean motions of the first three satellites of Jupiter cause, in some of these inequalities, values that have considerable influence on the whole of their theory. These motions are nearly in a sub-duplicate progression; and thence several very sensible inequalities result, of which the periods, differing from each other, are in the eclipses transformed into one alone of 437. 659. days. Bradley first remarked this period, in the return of the eclipses of the first and second satellite. *Wargentin* afterward clearly laid down the law of the inequalities on which it depends; and of which he attributed the cause to the mutual action of the first three satellites: without, however, subjecting it to analysis, which then was not in a sufficient state of advancement for this object. Mathematicians having since improved it, and having applied it to the perturbations of Jupiter's satellites, these inequalities first presented themselves to their researches, as they were first offered to observers. In the present volume, these inequalities are developed with all the nicety that their importance demands. With regard to Saturn's satellites, the difficulty of observation renders their theory so imperfect, that we scarcely know with any precision their revolutions, and their mean distances from that planet: it is therefore useless at present to consider their inequalities. In the position of their orbits, however, a remarkable phenomenon is observable. The orbits of the first six satellites appear to be in the plane of the ring, while that of the seventh is sensibly out of the plane. It is no slight nor easy employment for the physical astronomer, to account for this phenomenon by the principles and formulas of celestial mechanics.

Less is known of the satellites of Jupiter than of those of Saturn. It appears from the observations of *Herschell*, that they all move in the same plane, nearly perpendicular to that of the planet's orbit; a circumstance which clearly points out a like position

position in the plane of his equator. M. LA PLACE shews that oblateness of the planet, combined with the action of the satellites, is able to maintain their different orbits nearly in the same plane.

In the ninth book, the author treats of the perturbations of the comets. The great excentricities and inclinations of their orbits prevent us from applying to these stars the formulas which relate to planets and satellites. In the present state of analysis, it is not possible to represent their motions by analytical expressions which embrace an indefinite number of revolutions; and there is no other mode of determining them, than by parts, and by the method of quadratures. *La Grange* has invented the most simple method, which consists in regarding the orbit of the comet as an ellipse incessantly variable: each elliptic element is then expressed by the integral of a differential function; and there are several methods of approximating to this integral. M. LA PLACE exhibits these differential functions under their most commodious forms, and gives an exact method of integrating them by approximation.

Book the tenth discusses several interesting points relative to the system of the world. The theory of refraction, so important in astronomical observations, is here profoundly treated; and experience and hypothesis are skilfully united, and made to co-operate. Subsequent chapters are allotted to the extinction of the light of the stars in the atmosphere, and of the sun's atmosphere; to the measuring of heights by means of the barometer; to the fall of bodies from great heights; to certain cases, in which the motion of several attracting bodies may be rigorously obtained; to the alteration which might be occasioned in the motion of planets and comets by the resistance of the media which they traverse, and by the successive transmission of gravity; and the last chapter treats on the masses of the planets and the satellites.

All that remains for the completion of this undertaking,—one of the most arduous and important, and, after the *Principia* of Newton, the most ennobling and illustrious, that was ever conceived and carried into effect,—is an historical notice of the labours of astronomers, and of those mathematicians who have written on the system of the world:—such notice is destined for the eleventh and last book.

ART. V. *Memorial Topographique, &c. i. c.* A Topographical and Military Memorial, drawn up at the General *Dépt* of War; and printed by order of the Minister. No. 6. *Historical*. 4th Trimestre, 11th Year. 8vo. pp. 250. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

So great is the solicitude of the French to obtain that species of information which tends to promote their success in war, that it manifest itself on every occasion. They instruct their agents and commissioners to make surveys of those countries into which they are admitted; in order that, whenever they assume an hostile attitude, they may know the most vulnerable part of the country which they meditate to invade. Their topography is directed to military plans and operations, and is not confined to the discriminating aspect and features of a district. "War is indeed their business," and every thing seems to be made subservient to this destructive pursuit. While the picturesque and idle traveller is absorbed in the admiration of the beauties and sublimities of nature, the Frenchman contemplates them with the eye of an engineer; and he regards torrents and lakes, mountains, rocks, and gorges, only as the materials of fortification. These remarks are strikingly exemplified in the volume before us; forming a portion of a work, the whole of which we have not seen; and which we should not notice in this detached manner, did it not, for the most part, relate to a country which has been the scene of the late military operations between the Austrians and the French, and which is considered as the natural barrier of the states of Austria on the side of Italy, we mean the Tyrol. The author, who is an officer of the imperial corps of Genoa, mentions, in his introduction, the writers who have preceded him in giving accounts of this mountainous region; and among these he names M. *Albanis Beaumont* of Geneva, who traversed the Tyrol in 1786, in the suite of the late Duke of Gloucester, and published an account of it in English, in a large folio volume, with plates, intitled, "Travels through the Rhetian Alps\*." The *carte* which M. *Beaumont* gave is a mere sketch, though it affords a clear idea of the positions of the principal mountains and glaciers, with the sources and directions of the rivers; and, being a cursory traveller, it was perhaps impossible for him to enter into so complete a detail of localities, as a person expressly employed in the business of making a topographical survey. This officer farther remarks that M. *Beaumont's* 'views in *acqua tinta* are very interesting, if they are faithful:' but he who had been on the very spots on which M. *Beaumont* executed his drawings

\* See Rev. Vol. xii. N. 8. p. 303.

could have told us whether they were correct or not. We wish, for the purpose of promoting accuracy of design in picturesque tours prepared for the public, that the errors and plays of fancy in views given of particular places, in expensive publications, might be always pointed out by subsequent observers; since, without truth of pencil, the artist deceives when he professes to inform the eye. We do not suspect M. Beaumont, however, of a departure from the truth, and the above insinuation was unhandsome.

Before this writer enters on what he calls *Réconnaissances sur le Tyrol*, he presents us with some amusing prefatory matter respecting its physical circumstances, its inhabitants, and its antient and modern history.

‘The antient castle of Tyrol, which stands near *Méran*, has given its name to the country in the centre of which it is situated, and which is bounded on the north by Bavaria, on the east by the bishopric of Saltzburg and part of Carinthia, on the south by the Austro-Venetian states and the kingdom of Italy, and on the west by the Grisons and the Voralberg. Its extent from east to west is one hundred leagues, and from north to south about sixty-five leagues.

‘By its situation and its natural obstacles, this province might be considered as the salient bastion of the Austrian monarchy, of which the Italian *Adige* and the *Inn* of the plain are the curtains; the *Inn* of the mountains, the fosse; the Voralberg, the glacis; and *Lindau*, the advanced work.’

Our readers will learn, from this short extract, the character and extent of the country which is perhaps about to pass from the house of Austria; they may also collect from it the intentions of the French government; and they will perceive in it a justification of our remark concerning the author, that ideas of attack and defence are uppermost in his mind. Though, however, he is steady to his profession as a soldier, it is necessary for him to describe the natural features of the country, previously to his military surveys; and some of his accounts are curious. The subsequent relation respecting the *Glaciers* will not be deemed unworthy of notice:

‘The *Glaciers* are known in the north of the Tyrol by the general name of *Ferner*, and in the south by that of *Vedretta*; denominations which correspond to that of *Gletscher* in Switzerland, and that of *Wadrex* in the Grisons. They receive, moreover, their particular name from the valley in which they are formed, or from the mountain (*glacière*) to which they belong. Such are the *Hochbuerzag ferner*, the *Gerslar-ferner*, the *Schalfibaler-ferner*, &c.

‘It is supposed, in the country, that the *glaciers*, however great in number or enormous in size, are not of an older date than the third century. The people here relate the same fables which prevail among the Swiss respecting their periodical mutations; and it is asserted that

they increase and diminish alternately in the course of seven years. This is certain, that they are subject to more violent changes than in *Swisserland*; and that their augmentation is more sensible: the space which the *Gurgler-ferner* now occupies, between the *Schwartzberg* and the *Rübel-berg*, was a pasture on which shepherds not long ago tended their flocks.

It is in the gorge of the *CEtz*, and in its environs, that we meet with the most remarkable conglomeration of *glaciers*; and they are there so greatly multiplied, that to this part of the chain the name of *Grosse-Ferner* or *Great Glacier* is given. Some of them here undergo great alterations on the least change of temperature; at one time occupying the entire gorge, and at another even less than half of it. The mountain called *Neusberg*, which terminates the *Rofen-thal*, has two glaciers of this kind, the *Hochjock-ferner*, and the *Guslar-ferner*.

The kind of arch composed of ice, from which a stream of water issues at the foot of every *glacier*, increases considerably during summer, and some of them become real bridges, which extend from one mountain to another, and on which travellers pass without danger, excepting when it rains.

Sometimes, also, the surface of the *glacier* cracks perpendicularly, presenting a multitude of pyramids, the least solid of which breaks off and rolls with a great noise to the bottom of the gorge. These fragments, united by a new congelation, there increase, and form a dyke to the stream which their dissolution had increased.

After this manner, the *glacier* of *Rofen-thal*, called *Rofners'ee*, was formed in 1771. A stream issuing from *Hochjock-ferner* fell into the gorge of *Rofen*; some blocks of ice were detached in the month of August, and so filled up the gorge as to make a dam across it: this stream became a lake, and soon afterward a *glacier*, which now covers twelve thousand metres of excellent pasturage.

The inhabitants of these mountains remark that, when such *avalanches* descend from a single *glacier*, there is less reason to fear for the districts situated below it: but that, if two *glaciers* discharge themselves into the same bottom, a bank is very soon formed, and the new accretion of ice forces men and cattle to seek elsewhere for subsistence. Such accidents occurred several times during the last age in the gorge of *Gurgler*.

In general, we may observe that all these *glaciers* of recent formation obtain their increase from the month of October to that of June, a period at which they begin to thaw; then they form a multitude of cascades, presenting all that variety which is admired in Swiss scenery. Streams rushing from beneath vaults of ice, and swelled by tributary water-falls, sometimes become torrents which mark their course with devastation. When the southerly winds prevail for many successive days, the universal thaw seems to menace the vallies with a new deluge, mixed with sand, rocks, and ice.

From this account, it appears that the *glaciers* of the Tyrol are likely to increase; because, when a certain body of ice is accumulated, it perpetuates itself, and grows rather than diminishes. If these mountains and fields of ice extend themselves

from time to time over valleys and pastures, the temperature of the Tyrol must gradually change for the worse; and it is worth while to consider how far these misfortunes can be resisted, if not removed, by human genius and industry. The climate of a country might be ameliorated by the exertions of its inhabitants; and it would be kind in the French philosophers, to assist the Tyrolese with their advice respecting the best mode of counteracting (and in some instances of conquering) these glacial evils. When the writer glances at the productions of this country, he remarks that the vine will not now ripen at the same elevation at which it formerly flourished. He mentions the *Innthal* as one of the largest, best cultivated, and most populous vallies of the Alps. In addition to corn, salt, wood, and game, which it yields in abundance, it produces hemp and hops; and by the help of the latter, we are told, the inhabitants contrive to manufacture a kind of beer as strong and as good as English *porter*. Thus they endeavour to console themselves for the loss of the juice of the grape.

Exploring these Alpine regions with no romantic prepossessions, the present topographer is not disposed to repeat those compliments to the noble character and simple manners of the Tyrolese, which some travellers have bestowed on them. He leaves it, he says, to the sentimentalist, to imagine pictures of virtue existing among the people inhabiting the mountains of the Tyrol, and speaks only the result of his observations.

'Age and hard labour soon change the beautiful figures which characterize mountaineers; and the constant use of the pipe gives a sharpness to the muscles of the face. They eat very amply; and adhering to the taste of their ancestors, they drink to excess whenever they have opportunity. The peasants in general are in comfortable circumstances, devotees even to superstition, and very reserved near the cities: they are warmly attached to their mountains, which they cultivate with unremitting industry. They so ardently detest being classed in the militia, that many, in order to avoid it, disgrace themselves by flight: but they willingly engage in the capitation.'

'The peasants of the south, being more sober, are less devotees, less honest, and less frank: they are fond of having recourse to law, and their jealousies and revenge often furnish matter for criminal processes.'

We are informed, at the conclusion of the preface or introduction, that seasons, mountains, and rivers, present ineffectual obstacles to the French armies; that Austria has been indefatigable, since the peace of Luneville, in strengthening the natural defence of the Tyrolese frontier; and that a plan of this country has been executed on a large scale, to suit the topographical surveys of the acquisitions of the House of Austria in Poland and in Italy.

While the ministers of the Emperor Francis II. were occupied in schemes for rendering the passes of the Tyrol more formidable to an invading enemy, the Government of France was employed in examining the different places at which it was most accessible, and in considering the mode of overcoming the difficulties which it would oppose to an army. The *recollections* before us are intended as supplemental to the *Memoirs* which have formerly been composed on this subject; the author having examined its openings on every side, and minutely laid down the nature of every country which joins to the Tyrol, on the South and on the North, on the East and on the West. The state of the principal roads, the hours of march between the chief places, the natural and artificial obstacles, the chains and branches of the mountains, the course of the rivers, and the resources which in a military view the country is capable of affording, are the subjects of detail: but it would be uninteresting minutely to follow the writer through his various researches, and tiresome to enumerate the numerous vallies, gorges, &c. which are here specified. We shall content ourselves with adding, as a specimen of this work, the account of the lake *Garda*, which borders on the Tyrol, and which is not so generally known as some other lakes in this region of the Continent.

The lake *Garda* is about fifteen leagues long, and its mean breadth about three leagues. It is so much narrowed towards the upper part as to be scarcely 4000 metres or a league over; towards the middle, its width is double; and at the bottom it is four leagues wide. The head of the lake is shut in between *Monte Baldo* and the mountains of *Bressan*, which are cut perpendicularly from *Gargano* to *Riva*. The lower part is included between hills, to which learned Italians give the name of *Colli-Benacesi*. It receives the *Sarca* on the north; towards the west, the torrents of *Ponal*, *Brasa*, *Lampion*, and *Toscolano*; and on the east, the waters which run from *Monte Baldo*. The surface of the lake is broken by three islands, the *Trimelone*, *Olivi*, and *Fрати*, and by the peninsula of *Sermione*, which projects from the middle of the lower side of the basin.

Its waters being extremely limpid, we perceive at a great depth the stones at the bottom, and the plants which cover them: but its depth is so very unequal that its mean cannot be easily assigned. At a small distance from the banks, it measures almost every where many metres: but the deepest parts are towards the north. The Count *Beitoni*, cited by the Abbé *Volta*, according to soundings exactly taken, found 79, 124, 161, and in short 584 metres of water between *Castelletto* and *Gargnano*: but *Carli*, in his history of *Verona*, says that the same admeasurement taken by *M. Cocoli*, mathematician of *Brescia*, gave him only 179<sup>m</sup> below *Madona de Monte-Castello*, and sixteen metres of the escarpment is the deepest place of

of the lake; while on approaching the middle of the lake, he found but 1:9<sup>m</sup>.

‘The water is very light, but it has rather a fishy taste. M. Zeviani says that it is very good to drink, boils easily, does not curdle soap, and boils vegetables perfectly well. At the commencement of the summer, the water rises, which the fishermen attribute to the plants that spring up from the bottom of the lake: but which it is more natural to assign to the melting of the snows, and the heavy rains which fall at that season. The navigation is then often dangerous. When the water sinks, marshes appear in certain places; the exhalations from which, by the action of the sun, render the air unhealthy.

‘South and north winds prevail in the morning and in the evening, but the various directions of the gorges and vallies, which border on the lake, occasion currents of air, to which the inhabitants give names referring either to their effects or to the part of the shore from which they proceed. The *Veneziana* blows after changes of the weather, or when it becomes settled. The *Toscana* blows when the weather is about to change, and is often followed by a high wind. The names of these two refer to their direction; they are stormy, as is also that which blows from Garda, and is called *Spizzocher*, being often as tremendous as that from the north, but it is of short duration. The *Andro*, which blows from the side of Lonato, is little dangerous. Those of *Ponal* and *Navenne*, named from the places whence they proceed, are much to be feared in the summer season, taking the barks by surprize which sail in these directions: but these winds are not of long continuance. The *Ora* blows all the year, especially in April (Germinal) but it never disturbs the lake. The *Sovero* is the most furious, often violently agitating the whole mass of water; at which time, the lake presents the frightful appearance of a stormy sea. The vessels, which are overtaken by it, do not endeavour to resist it, and only think of shelter. These tempests commonly happen either in winter, when the snow is on the mountains; or in summer, when they become tremendous storms, which continue for two or three days. The appearance of the heavens indicates their approach.

‘The commerce of the lake is considerable, and it would become more so if the Mincio were rendered navigable. At Torri, Garda, Limon, Torbole, Peschiera, and Riva, the fishery\* is a very important object. The principal *entrepôt* or market is at Dezenzano: but there is another also at Torri. The people carry their fish to Venice, Milan, and even to Genoa; and every where it is much in request.

‘On the eastern bank, the ports most frequented are those of Lasisse, San Virgilio, and Malsonina: they are moreover the largest and most commodious. That of Torri is choaked up with sand, or at least subject to that inconvenience. Those of Bardolino and Brenzone are used only as ferries. That of Riva is the largest and the safest, and it is the *entrepôt* of the commerce of the Tyrol. Planks, framed timber, charcoal, &c. are sent from this point. Three fairs

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\* Sardines, eels, trout, and carp are the fish which most abound. It is singular that in one part river fish are found, and in another those fish which belong to the sea.

are held in every year; and the merchandise of the fair of Botzen passes by Torbole and Salò, or by Dezenzano, into Bressan and the Milanese. The largest barks carry 600 myriagrammes, from which their size diminishes almost to that of a fisherman's boat, able to carry only 125 myriagrammes, or 14 persons, with two or three watermen. When there is no wind, all the barks are rowed or towed along the shores: but they have a large square sail, and the largest have a rudder; the others are directed by an oar: none of them are decked. They never sail against the wind; and if, when they set out on a voyage, it blows rather briskly, they tack about. With a favourable wind, the largest barks make the most way, sailing nearly six miles in an hour; and a fishing boat, with four oars, can go four or five, if the wind be not contrary.\*

This memorial terminates with an article on the *Voralberg*, (comprehending the seigniories of Bregenz, Feldkirch, Pludentz, and Hohen-Embs) copied from *l'Almanach du Tyrol* for the year 1805, which is a publication of more extent, and includes more general and appropriate information, than most works of this kind. It contains various historical extracts, statistical memoirs, pieces of poetry, and anecdotes of bravery and patriotism. It is, in short, particularly calculated to excite the enthusiasm, energy, and attachment of the Tyrolese to the House of Austria.

Subjoined to the survey of the Tyrol, is a second Extract from a military survey of the Black Forest; being a continuation of details published in a preceding number, and signed *Guilleminot*, formerly *chef de bataillon* to the *Etat Major* of the army. As, however, we have not seen the former part, we shall not plunge headlong into the recesses of this formidable forest.

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ART. VI. *Dictionnaire des Sciences Naturelles*, &c. i. e. A Dictionary of the Natural Sciences, &c. Tome III. \* 8vo. pp. 492. With a second 4to. Atlas of Plates. Paris, 1805. Imported by De Boffe. price 15s.

**A**MONG a multitude of very short articles in this volume we have been much gratified with the perusal of a few which are treated in a very ample manner, yet without superfluous minuteness. The subject of argillaceous earths is treated in two chapters, the first of which relates to their divisions and geognostic situation, and the second to their nature, properties, and uses. Of the difficulty of assigning precise characters to the multiplied varieties of clay, M. BROGNIART seems to have been sufficiently aware. As, in

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\* See Appendix to Monthly Review, Vol. 46. p. 465.

fact, it presents, in its natural state, no series of essential and constant marks, but only a mixture of different earths in variable proportions, it can never form a mineralogical species, according to the most received principles of modern arrangement. The alumina, which is essential to its designation, often exists, as *Hauy* has justly observed, in such a trifling proportion, that, in a method founded on chemical analysis, most of the stones denominated clays could not be classed under the title of aluminous. We may add that scarcely any two strata of argillaceous earth exactly resemble each other; and that striking differences sometimes occur even in the same stratum. In this state of embarrassment, the mineralogist is reduced to the necessity of limiting his descriptions to some of the most prominent varieties, which are distinguished by external appearances, by the places in which they occur, or by the uses to which they are applied in the arts. Assuming, as the general properties of clays, diffusibility and ductility in water, and induration in heat, we may thus distinguish them from mere schisti, which are not diffusible in water; from horn-stone, trapp, serpentine, and other stones of a dull, earthy fracture; which, however moistened with water, never form a paste; and lastly from chalks, which, though diffusible, are not ductile, in water, and are not susceptible of being hardened by heat.

M. BROGNIART distributes the principal varieties into *approut*, *fusible*, *effervescent*, and *ochreous*. The first in his first section is the *Native Argil* of Kirwan.

‘The real existence of this clay in nature (he says) has been called in question. It has been found at Halle, in Saxony, in small mottled masses, disseminated in the uppermost layer of the soil. As it now very seldom occurs in this situation, and there is a large laboratory in the neighbourhood, some persons have suspected that it is a product of art: but *Bönisch*, who supplied *Fourcroy* with specimens, has observed that the laboratory is at the distance of more than a kilometre (513 toises) from the spot at which the clay is found, and that a very high wall intervenes. Native Argil is likewise said to have been discovered at Magdeburg, in Lower Saxony, in Silesia, at Potinier, near Verona, and in England.’ This clay is of a pure white, and meagre, though soft to the touch. When examined by the microscope, it appears to be composed (says *Schreiber*.) of a multitude of small prismatic and transparent crystals, a character which does not belong to artificial alumina. It adheres strongly to the tongue, but does not form a paste with water, emits the argillaceous odour, and sometimes effervesces with acids. This last circumstance, according to Kirwan, proceeds not from the presence of an extraneous earth, but from the appropriate combination of the alumina with the carbonic acid. To the same cause, he ascribes its meagreness to the touch. Yet *Theodore de Saussure* assures us, from positive ex-

periments, that this clay contains no carbonic acid, and that alumina itself cannot be converted into the form of a solid carbonat.

'Schreiber has found in this clay some particles of the carbonat and sulfat of lime, and of the sulfat of iron.'

The *Collyrite* variety is also rare. *Friesleben* found it at *Weissenfels* in *Thuringia*, and *Dr. Townson* at *S. hemnitz* in *Hungary*. It is white, ductile, and very retentive of water; which squirts from it by pressure. It loses, by desiccation, half its weight, and separates into basaltic prisms, like starch. According to *Klaproth*, the Hungarian sort yields 45 parts alumina, 14 silica, and 42 water.

The pipe clays are here denominated *plastic*; and many of their varieties, especially those which occur in *France*, are particularized.

Among the fusible kinds is the *Saponaceous*, or *Argilla Saponiformis* of *Werner*, which is found at *Okutsch* in *Poland*, and in *England*, though very rarely. It is distinguished by its earthy and fine grained fracture, its soft and greasy feel, and its very strong adherence to the tongue.

Another remarkable variety has been termed the *light*. Its specific gravity, according to *Fabroni*, is 1,372, and sometimes only 0,362. It floats on water, when not imbibed by that fluid. That which *Fabroni* discovered near *Santa Fiora*, in the *Siennese* territory, and of which he made floating bricks, has been very improperly denominated *fossil flour*, and *mineral agaric*, which are popular names for certain varieties of the carbonat of lime. *Fabroni's* analysis of light clay is, Silica 55, magnesia 15, water 14, alumina 12, lime 3, iron 1.—Of this description of argillaceous earth, *Faujas* has discovered two subordinate varieties in the department of the *Ardèche*.

*M. BROGNIART's* remarks on the mineral situation of argillaceous earths are sufficiently conformable to the general state of facts; and his details with respect to the manufacture of bricks, tiles, earthenware, tobacco-pipes, &c. are likewise extremely judicious and satisfactory. A few paragraphs are allotted to the alcarazzas, or cooling vessels of *Spain*, *Egypt*, *Syria*, &c. *M. Fourcroy*, of *Paris*, has succeeded in imparting a still lower temperature to water by employing a slightly baked porcelain of a coarse grained paste.—A long and distinct account is given of the china manufactory at *Séves*. Those of *Vienna*, *Meissen*, *Frankenthal*, *Louisburg*, *Berlin*, *Copenhagen*, *St. Petersburg*, *Naples*, *Florence*, and *Madrid*, are also mentioned, but no notice is taken of those of *England*.

The article *Arsenic* is likewise treated at some length. As this fossil substance occurs under various forms, and is even included

cluded in matters which conceal its external characters, the author justly observes that it is of great consequence to fix on one or more tests by which its presence can at all times be easily ascertained. Of these, the most simple and obvious is the pungent odour of garlic which it diffuses, when put on live coals: but since an inexperienced observer may confound this smell with that of oxyd of antimony, it may be proper to add its great volatility in the form of white smoke. 'This volatility is so considerable, that the metal is sublimed before it is fused; a circumstance which sufficiently distinguishes it from antimony. Lastly, the prepared oxyd of this metal is fixed, whereas that of arsenic is very volatile.'

The term *assolement* is used by M. Tessier, to denote *rotation of crops*. From his own observation, the author is convinced that the more closely any two species of plants (especially of the gramineous families) resemble one another, the less fit are they to be sown in immediate succession. Thus oats will succeed better than barley, immediately after wheat or rye; and leguminous or cruciform plants much better than oats. The same doctrine, he affirms, applies to shrubs and trees. 'If (says he) you cut down a row of elms, you should not replace them by other elms; as I know by experience that the plantation will not succeed, unless the new trees be planted in the intervals of the old, or unless the soil be renewed on the stations of the latter. Hence, too, a plantation of pines should be succeeded by one of larch; that, by oak; the oak by the chesnut-tree, &c. Whenever, in the kitchen garden, I have replaced one pear-tree by another, the latter has always failed to prosper: but an apple-tree, though little removed from it in respect of botanical characters, turned to much better account; and trees with stone fruit may be expected to thrive more than those with small seeds, when planted on ground which has been occupied by the latter.'

In the same article, some useful hints will be found with regard to the management of fenny grounds, and the alternate *crops of fish and grain*.

*Baleine* is a long but very entertaining and instructive article. Nearly sixteen pages are allotted to the anatomical and physiological details; eight species are particularly described; and much important information is added concerning the external senses and habits of cetaceous animals, their numerous enemies, the particulars of the whale fishery, &c. &c.

A singular fact, related by *La Cépède*, is advanced in confirmation of the acuteness of smell possessed by the whale. Vice Admiral *Pléville*, being one day at sea with his fishermen, perceived several whales in the horizon, and was preparing to make

make room for their passage, when he ordered the bilge water to be thrown out of the boat; and they instantly disappeared. This experiment he frequently repeated on the approach of whales, and always with the same success.

We have already hinted at the too great brevity of most of the other articles. Among the multitude of terms wholly omitted, we may mention *argyrite*, the spume of silver, *arondelat*, a young swallow, *arondelière*, celandine, *arphyè*, the horn-beak, *arundinacé*, of the red kind, *aspergonte*, fever-few, *asperifolié*, that has rough leaves, *attentes*, the chives of saffron, *averat*, the musk-pear, *azuré*, the azure lizard, *baccifère*, berry-bearing, *balladin*, the Numidian crane, *balotin*, a variety of the lemon-tree, *balux*, sand impregnated with particles of gold, *bambele*, the small white-carp of the lake of Zurich, &c. &c.

The second atlas of plates is by no means inferior to the first; and, though we cannot assert that the performance, on the whole, promises to approach that point of perfection of which the scheme is susceptible, it may certainly be consulted with benefit in a great variety of instances, and may frequently contribute to the accommodation, if not to the instruction, of the scientific naturalist.—The present volume begins with the word *Argielas*, and ends with *Bamia*.

ART. VII. *Essai sur les Causes*, &c. i. e. An Essay on the Causes of the Superiority of the Greeks in the Arts of Invention; a Question proposed by the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Lyons. By J. J. LEULIETTE, Professor of Belles Lettres, &c. 8vo. pp. 120. Paris, 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2s. 6d.

AMONG all the phenomena recorded in the history of human improvement, none is more striking, or has more perplexed the ingenuity of the learned fully to explain, than the vast superiority once attained by the Greeks in the imitative arts. Many of their productions, which have happily survived the destructive efforts of time and barbarism, are still unrivalled; and for all the real elegance and taste which Europe now possesses, we are indebted to the ideas which they have communicated. Rome, before her acquaintance with Greece, displayed nothing in painting, statuary, and architecture, which merited any praise; and we need not go far back to be convinced that the productions of the chisel in our own country were rude and mis-shapen, till our artists began to study the science and to copy the models of the Greeks. Every other nation might make a singular remark; and it is certainly an interesting object to inquire into the causes which contributed to raise

raise the petty states of antient Greece to a degree of excellence in the arts, which has rarely been equalled and never surpassed;—which was matter of admiration to the Romans in the most brilliant æra of their republic; and which modern Europeans, after the lapse of many centuries, are contemplating with almost despairing astonishment. Were the antient Greeks an *unique* race of men, or was the climate of their country singularly propitious to the exertions of genius? Neither of these positions perhaps is admissible. Since Zeuxis, Apelles, Lysippus, Phydias, and Praxiteles flourished, considerably more than twenty centuries have elapsed: but it is remarkable that, after the disappearance of the circumstances under which they lived, the subsequent ages became ages of barrenness; and Greece, for a long, long period, has been as barbarous as any of those nations on whom, in the days of her splendour, she conferred this degrading epithet. We are indebted, probably, to the mild climate of Attica for the preservation of the works of the antient Greeks, which in a more variable and corrosive atmosphere must long ago have inevitably perished: but it cannot be supposed that the people owed their inventive genius, and the correctness and sublimity of their taste, to the purity and elasticity of the air. The climate of Greece remains the same, but the glory of the Greeks is departed.

The brilliant epoch of the polite arts was also that of the belles-lettres. We see the poets and orators of Greece associated with her painters, sculptors, and statuary. While her philosophers and legislators regulated the commonwealth, and her heroes bled in its defence, she was immortalized by the verse of her poets and by the tools of her artists. It is reasonable, therefore, to imagine that this resplendent galaxy of genius must have originated in a common source. ‘Without doubt,’ says M. LEULIETTE, ‘this people were indebted for the brilliant advantages which they enjoyed, for their august character, and their imposing supremacy, to the forms of their government, to their religious ideas, and to a legislation peculiarly favourable to the developement of talents.’ Neither of these causes alone would have been adequate to the wonderful effect; and even a general view of their combined operation will scarcely impress the mind with a conviction of the truth. We must have lived in the age of Grecian glory; we must have witnessed the enthusiasm excited by Homer, and those poets whom his muse may be said to have inspired; we must have caught the ardor and emulation produced by popular governments and institutions; we must have been present at the Olympic and Isthmian games; and we must have been spec-

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tators of the pomp and splendour of their religion, which was aided by all the fascination of an elegant mythology; in order to feel a portion of that *momentum* by which genius of every kind was powerfully impelled to the sublimest exertions, and by which the arts were advanced to the greatest perfection.

M. LEULIETTE hints that 'the climate and the situation of the countries of Greece might contribute much to excite ideas of the sublime;' adding, 'we know that most of the antient poets were born in the smiling isles of the Grecian Archipelago, which fable has embellished with its most seducing delusions, or in the vicinity of Attica.'

'The islander is constantly struck with the most superb pictures; the vast ocean aggrandizes his thoughts, and the storms of which it is the theatre furnish him with magnificent comparisons. Commerce attracts foreign nations to his ports, which bring riches hitherto unknown, and enlarge the sphere of the mind. The islander observes, judges, compares; and without travelling he becomes acquainted with the manners and laws of other states, together with their gloomy and august superstitions. Imagine to yourself a country in which nature is most varied in her forms, and most subject to vicissitudes; in which are enjoyed by turns the most cheaful and the most majestic prospects; in which the mind from time to time experiences rapture and surprise; in which mountains that lose themselves in the clouds, and forests impressed with the features of antiquity, summon to reflection and meditation; in which grottos, fountains, and groves give birth to the bewitching dreams of mythology; and if to all these riches of nature be added a temperature which awakes and varies our sensations, storms and tempests which affright the vulgar, and give occasion to poets to impute to the anger of the Gods those volcanoes and convulsions of nature, which seem to ravage the earth with the flames of hell: if, moreover, on the confines of this poetic region, ferocious and warlike beasts contend with man, and untamed animals assign even limits to his power, creating deserts around themselves, remaining independent of a Being who receives chains only from his fellow-creatures, and who would have every thing in subjection to him;—while we trace a spectacle so varied, so fertile in contrasts, we cannot but feel how the poet, the painter, and the statuary were there furnished with resources.'

According to this representation, all countries which present the sublime and the beautiful in strong contrast,—and especially islands, which, in addition to rural and romantic scenery, enjoy the prospect of Neptune's "salt wave."—ought to abound in celebrated poets and artists: but here the author before us depicts rather than reasons. Indeed, in a subsequent part of his essay, he abandons this explanation of his subject; remarking that the government and political institutions of the Greeks had more effect on their imagination than can be ascribed to their climate.

Homer is here contemplated with the warmest enthusiasm as the parent of Grecian art; and next to his divine genius, from the copious fountains of which orators, philosophers, and statesmen, drew inspiration, M. LEPLIETTE discovers in the democracy of the Greeks one cause of their mental elevation. 'A popular government,' he observes, 'is propitious to talents of all kinds; it exalts all the passions; it forces men to shew themselves, with all their virtues and their faults, greedy of power, and capable of sacrificing every thing to independence. Wherever man is found in a state of perfect liberty, he is in the vicinity of the extremes of virtue, and of the extremes of corruption. He then displays no mediocrity either of good or evil. In this state, so favourable to the developement of his faculties, he fears no restraint, he forms the boldest projects, and there is no point, however elevated, which he does not wish to attain.'

After all, however, the Democracy of the Greeks will serve but partially to account for their superiority in the Arts. We think that the public games celebrated in Greece, and their anthropomorphic religion, contributed more than any other circumstance to the perfect exhibition of the human form, and to the study of ideal beauty. Their mythology represented men raised to the honours of divinity; and their artists employed the utmost stretch of their genius, in giving to those images which were worshipped in their temples a form and an appearance surpassing all human realities. Of the painter and the statuary, it was required to embody the fictions of the poet, and to give grandeur and solemnity to the ceremonies of the priest. Not only the temple, the altar, and the tripod, but even the God himself, was created by the skill of the artist. We may judge, then, how highly his powers must have been estimated, and to what a pitch all his abilities must have been exerted, to bestow on a religion of *spectacle* the most imposing and striking effect. In endeavouring to exhibit Gods of the most attractive forms, he was obliged attentively to study the human figure, and to combine together beauties which never perhaps were united in any one individual. Artists therefore labored to surpass one another in this admirable department of their profession. Employed in the creation of divinities, and in the representation of their actions, their works seemed to be the result of inspiration; perfection was their aim; and they never ceased till perfection was accomplished. After they had excelled in the formation of Gods, it was easy to execute the statues of men, and to flatter the great by giving to their figures the resemblance of particular deities. Thus in the idolatrous systems of antient Greece, with which all the human passions were

were intimately combined ; in her political customs and institutions ; and in the events of her history, which brought into vivid action the most noble powers of the mind ; we may discover those circumstances which peculiarly fostered the arts : but it would demand a very minute analysis,—an analysis which M. LEULIETTE has not attempted, and which would require very persevering labour to supply,—to exhibit that view of the progress of Belles-Lettres, and the Arts, which would satisfy the ingenious inquirer.

It might be said that other countries have abounded in sacred mythologies ; and that Egypt in particular, the acknowledged cradle of Grecian science, though professing a religion which equally addressed itself to the senses, and endeavouring to create an effect on the public mind by visible representations, never produced artists who exhibited such elegant and correct forms as those of Greece. Let it, however, be remembered that the mythology of Egypt was not so propitious to true genius as that of Attica ; that Egypt had not a Homer ; that her religion delighted more in stupendous and emblematic than in beautiful and chaste forms ; and moreover that the nature of her government was not calculated, like that of the Greeks, to bring into action all the intellectual energies of her people. During the period of Grecian glory, all that was great in man, all that contributed to exalt his powers, and to kindle every spark of talent, was cherished by the most happy combination of events,—by a combination which very rarely occurs in the history of the world. Greece was a little universe ; and a single city there presented, within the period of ten years, more interesting scenes and greater characters than all Asia, in the course of ten centuries.

Supereminent as once was the glory of Greece, it has long disappeared ; and only in the remains of her literature and her art, are we able to trace her ancient superiority. Whether any future revolution will revive her consequence, it is impossible to foresee : but at present she is sunken to the lowest level of human degradation :—over which, M. LEULIETTE pours an affecting and at the same time an artful lamentation :

‘ This country, which has conferred so much honour on humanity, is no longer visible among nations ; and the luminary, which once enlightened her, seems to have set for ever. Rome has been more fortunate ; she has risen from her ruins, and has obtained a second existence almost as brilliant as the first. She does not indeed present in modern times the majestic and striking spectacle of a free and conquering people, nor a senate formidable to her citizens and to the whole world : but the genius of her sovereigns has procured for her a domination not less extensive than that which she formerly enjoyed. The pomp of the Vatican and the temple of the Apostle  
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of Christianity have in some degree eclipsed the majesty of the Pantheon and the palace of the Cæsars. Italy has seen *chefs-d'œuvre* arise on the remains of those of antiquity, and her harmonious lyres have revived the ashes of Horace and of Virgil: but Greece has never recovered the happy privilege of enlightening and charming her people, and barbarians now trample that classic ground. The stupid sectaries of Islamism, incapable of the efforts of creative genius, have almost effaced the very traces of the glory of Athens; brutish and miserable slaves, without thought, and in stupid ignorance, walk over the august theatres on which Sophocles and Euripides disputed the tragic palm, on which Æschines and Demosthenes shared the triumphs of eloquence, and Plato and Aristotle partook the glory of enlightening mankind.

The isles have endured the same fate in which the continent has been involved; the same yoke is imposed on Rhodes, so celebrated both for her master-pieces of art and for the industry of her inhabitants; on the island of Crete, in which poetry has placed the cradle of Jupiter; and in short on the whole Archipelago, in which the illusions of fable conspired with the charms of nature to create a region of enchantment. What happy revolution, what change in European policy, will restore this country to its pristine glory; and there rekindle, after the lapse of twenty centuries, the torch of the arts!

In this apostrophe, we perceive the views of the French. In fact, M. LEULIETTE's Essay is rather a bold declamation than a sober inquiry; and perhaps he already sees, in his poetic visions, the French flag waving on the walls of the Acropolis.

ART. VIII. *Mémoires de M. le Baron DE BESENVAL, &c. i. e.* Memoirs of the Baron DE BESENVAL, Lieutenant General in the armies of Louis XV and Louis XVI, Great Cross of the Order of St. Louis, Governor of Haguenau, Commandant of the Provinces of the Interior, Lieutenant Colonel of the regiment of Swiss Guards, &c. Written by himself, printed from his original Manuscript, and published by his Executor. Containing many particulars and anecdotes of the Court, the Ministers, and the Reigns of Louis XV and Louis XVI, and of the Events of the Time. Preceded by a short account of the life of the Author. In 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 1s. sewed.

AN introductory note informs the reader that he is indebted for this interesting work to M. A. J. de Ségur, who was Executor of the will of M. DE BESENVAL, and who guarantees the authenticity of the publication. M. de S. has also prefixed to it a brief memoir of the author, from which we shall make an abstract.

PETER VICTOR, Baron of BESENVAL, was born at Soleure, of a Patrician family. He entered into the regiment of Swiss Guards as a cadet at the age of nine, made the campaign

paign of 1735 at the age of thirteen; and served in Bohemia as aid de camp to the late General *Broglie* in 1748. In the very commencement of the seven years' war, the bravery which he manifested in storming a redoubt, and the pleasantry by which he kept up the spirits of his men, which were ready to droop, though success was within their reach, raised the young BESENVAL to early notice, and insured his speedy promotion. In the war of 1757 he served as aid de camp to the Duke of Orleans; and during the peace, the Baron contracted that close intimacy with this Prince, which afterwards assisted his fortune. If he possessed every requisite which commands success in camps, that bravery, that rare manner of animating all around him, of charming his comrades by his sallies, of encouraging his inferiors by his example, and of recommending himself to his chiefs by that intelligence and activity which he unceasingly displayed, he was not less distinguished by the grace, talents, address, and the good taste, which seduce in courts.

He joined to a tall figure that form which gave charms to youth, and dignity to advanced age: but he laboured under one grand defect; he was subject to outrageous bursts of passion. This imperfection he had in vain attempted to remedy; and he was at length induced readily to give way to it, as to a violent crisis which could not be prevented, and from which he could thus be the most speedily freed. An interesting anecdote of him is related on this subject. He had an old Valet named *Blanchard*, who had served his father before the Baron was born, and who had ever since been in the family. He was, bending under the pressure of age, lived with his master as an old friend rather than as a servant, and had only little matters to arrange, which contributed to amuse him and keep him in gentle exercise.

‘A Cape Jasmine was one day brought to M. DE BESENVAL, which he destined for the Queen: but having occasion to go out, he confided it to *Blanchard*, desiring him to water it. The good man busied himself with the flower, but his attention did not preserve him from a sad misfortune. The pot slips, falls, and is broken; the root, the flower, are all reduced to fragments! At this moment, M. BESENVAL enters; he runs to his jasmine; at the sight of the catastrophe, he flies into a passion which soon rises to fury; the old man attempts to escape, but his master lays hold of him, and loads him with reproaches.—The day passes on; and the rage of the Baron still more quickly dissipates.

‘He sends several times to the door of *Blanchard* to learn how he is; the answer is that he is gone to bed; this disturbs him, and torments him during the whole of the night. In the morning, he rings; when *Blanchard* enters the chamber, and thus addresses him: “My lord,  
I come

I come to ask a favour; it is the permission to retire to my relations."—"What," says M. de B. warmly: "you desire to leave me! You will stay, sir, we ought to live and die together."—"No, my lord, I perceive that I become hateful to you, I grow too old, and only excite, by my infirmities, the violence of your temper.—You have loaded me with gifts and kindness; I will often come to see you: but if I dwell not here, and am no longer entrusted with any thing, we shall both of us escape those scenes which destroy us." "Well, sir," replies the Baron with tears in his eyes, "it is then a settled thing? we must part? You belonged to my father, your wife was my nurse, you are older than I am in the family, and it is I who must go: I will return when you can tolerate my failings." At these words, he took his cane and his hat, quitted his chamber, and was going out: but immediately the good *Blanchard*, moved by this unexpected stroke, throws himself at his feet before his door. His master raises him, presses him in his arms, they shed tears, and swear never to separate.

We shall have occasion to observe, however, in the sequel, that M. le Baron, with all his natural goodness, was rather deficient in morals. His biographer admits that he was more lively than profound; that he owed more to nature than to art; that his fine *tact*, which made him divine what was proper to be said or done on most occasions, covered his scanty knowledge, and perhaps misled him, by enabling him to talk on subjects with which he was not acquainted; and that he was of opinion that a man of the world had little need of instruction, and ought to confine his studies wholly to his profession. He died in 1789, 'at a time,' observes his biographer, 'when he would have been obliged to witness events which would have thrown him into despair. He left to society only honorable recollections; military men remember him with respect; the arts regret him; his family regard him as their boast; and his friends will always bewail him.'

The work commences with an account of the reforms introduced into that part of the Swiss soldiery which was in the pay of France; a detail which interests chiefly as it shews the honourable native bent of the author, his firmness in a laudable undertaking, his foresight, his address, and his thorough knowledge of the people with whom he had to deal; a knowledge which each country dignifies with the name of the knowledge of the world.

Our readers are informed that, about the beginning of the last century, a war of religion, excited by the priests, raged some time in Switzerland. It is also notorious that many of the catholic leaders embarked very unwillingly in the contests which the holy incendiaries had excited; and of this number was the commandant *Pfiffer*. Not desirous of vanquishing the protes-

tants, he took a bad position, and even permitted himself to be turned. His son, who was not in the secret, perceived the fault which his father had committed, and apprized him of it: but seeing that he took no steps to remedy it, and full of a patriotic enthusiasm worthy of the first Romans, he cried out from rank to rank: *What; will no person kill my father; as for me, I cannot; I am his son.*

Curious anecdotes, interesting sketches of several Generals, and remarks highly creditable to the understanding of the writer, give value to his accounts of several battles which happened in the course of the seven years' war; they claim the attention of historians, and will be very acceptable to military men.

Every body has heard of the profligacy of manners which prevailed under the Regent. Instances which completely illustrate this fact are stated in these volumes, and we regret to find the accounts descend into offensive detail; at least into such as a British public would deem highly indecorous. It is to be feared that our brave, high-minded, and in other respects honorable and upright Baron entered but too much into the dissoluteness of the period; since he publishes to all future times, that he gave every assistance in his power to a deliberate seducer, in order to facilitate his triumph over an affected prude. The Baron indeed admits that this proceeding, which he endeavours to gloss over, may perhaps redound to his shame. We think truly that it does, and in a high degree; even after every allowance has been made for his want of education, and his relation with a court in which all morality was set at defiance.

The Baron states that the father of the late king of Portugal, on being asked by his mistress, during one of his visits to her, to grant her a favour, became all at once silent; and can you, said she, refuse me what I so much desire?—No, replied he, *I promise you that to-morrow I will speak of it to the king.*—The same monarch held one day an argument with the Marquis de Pontelimar, on the power of kings; the latter maintained that it had limits, but his sovereign would admit of none, and said to his courtier with great warmth, *if I ordered you to throw yourself into the sea, you ought, without hesitation, to jump into it head foremost.* The Marquis immediately turned short, and went towards the door. The king, surprised, asked him where he was going. *To learn to swim, Sir.* The king laughed heartily, and the conversation ended.

The author of these memoirs was closely connected with the Duke de Choiseul, of whom many anecdotes are here related: but they descend too much into minutiae to allow of our ex-

tracting or abridging them. The picture which the Baron draws of his patron is a good likeness though favourable: but the great features in his administration, the Austrian alliance and marriage, are entirely passed over; and the relations are principally confined to affairs in which the court and the Jesuits were concerned with him. Some of the matters here disclosed place in a strong light the power, influence, and activity of that society. It appears that it was not with the Duke de Choiseul, as has been generally thought, that the plan of abolishing it originated: but that the measure had its commencement in the parliament of Paris, and was first mentioned by the king to the minister, who had not then formed an opinion on the subject; and it being Louis's wish, it was agreed to put a stop to the measures that were instituted against it. Louis preserving the same intention, but following other advice, suffered matters to go so far that there was no longer an opportunity of saving the order; he then conferred again with the minister, who, having maturely considered the matter, had come to the conclusion that the order ought not to be preserved, and told the king that it was best to get rid of it. "Let imbecile," said the monarch smiling, "I shall not be sorry to see father Desmaretz reduced to an abbé." On all occasions, the same indifference manifested itself in the proceedings of Louis XV.

Those scandalous scenes, which took place during the illness of this contemptible and worthless monarch, are here detailed with great particularity; and, though a partisan of Choiseul, the author exposes the infamy of them with as much severity as might be expected from a revolutionist. He states that M. d'Aiguillon and Madame du Barry had peopled the court with sharpers, intriguers, and spies; and that not merely the physicians, but the king's almoner, the Cardinal de la Roche-Aimon, gave themselves up, on the awful occasion, to the purposes of the minister and the mistress.—We turn to another anecdote.

M. de Lamoignon, descended from a family very celebrated in the annals of the long robe, whose name occurs so frequently in the histories of the revolution, and who was keeper of the seals at the time of its commencement, married the sole heiress of M. de Berrier, who had been long lieutenant of police. In consequence of his marriage, he found himself in possession of a number of notes and documents which equally implicated individuals and families. None were more interested than Messieurs de Maupeou, that these papers should not fall into the hands of the public. Neither the father, who had been a long time first president, and afterward vice-chancellor; nor the son, then president à mortier, afterward president, and finally chancellor, was exempt from stains on his character, which would have disgraced him, had they been exposed to the light. The younger Maupeou never scrupled means, if an object was to be at-

tained: venality had often supplanted the integrity of the magistrate; and, in a word, he had reason to reproach himself with all the excesses to which a man without principle is abandoned. As he was ambitious, and therefore desirous of concealing the vices of his character, he left no method untried to induce *M. de Lamoignon* to give him up the papers which affected himself and his family. He incessantly courted the president, practising every art to insinuate himself into his good graces, and at length openly asked him for the papers. *De Lamoignon* gave him a decisive though civil refusal. *Maupéou* dissembled his disappointment, and continued his attentions to the president as before; until one day a domestic of *de Lamoignon* came to inform him that *M. de Maupéou*, after having employed every effort to seduce him, offered him a large bribe if he would take from his master's house a certain case (the form and place of which he described,) and bring it to him. It was precisely that which contained the papers of *M. Berrier*. When next the grave magistrates met, *de Lamoignon* poured out the most bitter reproaches on the future chancellor, and desired him never again to enter his door.

*M. DE B.*'s account of the origin of the parliament, the grounds of its pretensions, and the extent of its authority and jurisdiction, constitutes the most instructive, though not the most amusing portion of these volumes; and it is far superior to what we should have expected from a courtier belonging to the military profession. Though he himself follows no method, yet his observations branch into three divisions, which severally embrace the antiquities, the political functions, and the legal administration of the first sovereign court, the Parliament of Paris.

It is justly observed that 'the feudal powers of the lords and the prerogatives of the governors of provinces and of those of cities, troubled the order of society, prevented civil subordination, and obstructed the course of justice.' When Cardinal *de Richelieu* broke down whatever confined the power of the crown, it is asked by the Baron, why he suffered the pretensions of the parliament to continue? Did he consider that court as a depositary of the acts of government; and the fact of registering as a circumstance necessary to give them notoriety? Did he wish to leave the nation a phantom of a barrier, the effects of which he did not foresee, against the will of the monarch? The author does not pretend to guess what the consideration was, which determined a mind so arbitrary as that of the Cardinal, to suffer any check on absolute power to remain in the constitution.

'Formerly, (he remarks) the monarchs in person administered justice: but at a very early period they empowered the principal lords to supply their place. These chiefs, of whom the greater number could not read and write, were ignorant of the provisions of law

law which regulated both civil and criminal proceedings; and it was to inform them of these rules, that they were attended by legists; who had no deliberative voice, were seated on inferior benches, and never spoke but when they were required. The distresses of the exchequer occasioned the sale of their places, and they were appointed assessors to the lords; who, making an indifferent figure by the side of their assistants, fatigued by the length and intricacy of the proceedings, and called away by war and other avocations, soon ceased to attend, and the whole proceedings were left to the men of the robe. The parliament was a body of such a nature that it might easily assume a consistence. The dispenser of justice, it became an object which engaged attention and deference from all orders, and it was also the depositary of the archives of the nation. In times of civil war, the parliament, according to the part which it took, was either the support of the throne or the shield of the disaffected. In a minority, it adjudged the regency. Being the only fixed and legal body in the kingdom, it became the resort of the oppressed and the ambitious. It assumed the protection of the people, and undertook to make representations to the throne in its favour. Mere administrators of justice at first, all the political functions of the members were usurpations.\*

The Baron denies that the parliament ever protected the people against burdensome imposts. 'In such cases, (he says) it was gained over by money, or by the hope of favour and recompence. It only shewed itself inflexible and undaunted when its own rights were in question, when it was endeavouring to extend them, or attempting to interfere in the civil administration.

'In dispensing justice, it favoured the extension of vexatious and ensnaring forms, and tolerated the exactions of the advocates and solicitors; even the members themselves claimed exorbitant fees, and opened their ears to interest and corruption. Equity could not insure the success of a suit, nor the acquittal of a person criminally charged. The judges allowed themselves to be solicited; and they required that they should be complimented even by suitors who had lost their causes. If, then, protection and favour found their way into the courts, how much was it to be dreaded to have a suit with any of the members of the robe? It was a grievous misfortune to have property lying conveniently for any one of them. How many unhappy persons in the provinces have been stripped of their inheritances, and have been robbed of their estates, by iniquitous decrees, when they happened to be contiguous to the domains of a member of one of the Parliaments? So indecently did they conduct themselves, that no constable or bailiff could be induced on any terms to serve the members with process; they were consequently never arrested by their creditors; nor were their goods ever taken in execution, though men in distressed circumstances were as common among them as in any other class.

'When the Parliament became obstinate, and continued disobedient to repeated orders to register the royal edicts, the king held what has been termed his *lit de justice*; that is to say, he went to the Parliament, accompanied by the Princess of the blood, the Peers, and other notables, and there, in his presence, caused the decrees and registrations which he did not approve to be erased. The royal sitting being finished, the parliament protested against the violence, and there the matter ended, if the public interest only was concerned: but if that of the Parliament was in question, it had recourse to strong measures. The different tribunals then united, the members of the several courts assembled in the hall of the principal, and were solely occupied with the matter of their grievances; and in violation of their oaths they discontinued to administer justice to individuals. There was no remedy for this monstrous evil, except exile, which was ever regarded as severe and harsh, and which increased the public inconvenience of a cessation of the administration of justice.—The members had long contended that they were not removeable from office.'

M. de B. is unable to guess how this claim sprang up and was recognized: but it appears to us to have arisen almost necessarily from the sale of the appointments. To have encouraged persons to quit other pursuits, and to lay out their fortune in the purchase of a respectable office, and afterward to claim a power of divesting them of their stations would have been in the particular instances extreme oppression; and it would have had the effect (which probably was the decisive consideration with a distressed court) of reducing incalculably the value of the places, and thus of drying up one of the resources of the exchequer.

It is really amazing to see how every circumstance in the last reigns tended to usher in the awful catastrophe which followed. What a scene is that which takes place between the two great law dignitaries, who almost successively held the seals of the kingdom, the former as chancellor, the latter as keeper! Or who can read without horror the picture of the parliament, from which we have selected a few traits? We cannot wonder that a society crumbled in which such serious evils prevailed, or that a state perished, the vitals of which were thus corroded. When the fountains of justice are poisoned, the body politic must languish; and if it is exposed to any rude shocks, they will inevitably prove fatal to it. There may be complete political servitude; yet if justice is fairly and equally dispensed between the subjects, the nation may be contented and prosperous: but if there be a failure in that quarter, languor will prevail, and be followed sooner or latter by dissolution. Little doubt is now entertained that it was the crazy state of the ancient edifice which induced the ruin that we have beheld; and we have here a witness to the fact who is unexceptionable,

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a courtier who moved in the first circles, who was in the secret of most of the measures which the court adopted, and who was actively concerned in accomplishing several of them. He long enjoyed the confidence of the queen; he was able, even when deprived of that particular favor, to influence her by means of *Madame de Polignac*; and again when *d'Adhémar* and *Vaudreuil* had supplanted him with the favourite, he had still access to her, and was encouraged to make representations which were always treated with attention, and very often carried into effect.

In noticing the marks of attachment shewn to Louis XV. in the early part of his reign, the Baron states that

‘His indecent conduct in living with *Madame de Chateauroux*, in the face of his whole army; the indignity with which, in the apprehension of death he had dismissed her; and the weakness which he shewed in recalling her on his recovery; occasioned very free observations to be then made for the first time. *Madame de Pompadour*, a city matron, publicly carried off from her husband in order to exercise sovereign authority, caused the mask to be wholly thrown away, and opened a channel for licentiousness. Conversation, verses, songs, libels, every mode was adopted to give this affair the colouring which belonged to it, and in order to vilify the monarch, who soon fell into contempt; the certain forerunner of state disturbances. This conduct excited in the ladies of the court implacable resentment, and they ceased not to deafen the ear with their complaints and protestations: but their indignation and exclamations knew no bounds, when, two years after the death of *Madame de Pompadour*, they beheld the illegitimate offspring of a monk and a cook-maid (taken from a place of bad fame by a sharper of the name of *du Barry*, who supported her under the name of *de Lange*, or of *Mademoiselle Vaubernier*, and who was ready to sell her to any one who would give a good price for her,) become the sole dispenser of the king’s favour. It was at the feet of this mistress that Louis XV. placed his sceptre, and thus consummated the opprobrium and contempt with which he was covered. Under this new sovereign, the court changed its aspect. All who made professions of honor, and who respected decency, were overwhelmed by the denunciations, the licentiousness, the intrigues, and the corruption of this woman, whom they called *Comtesse du Barry*; who drew to court a crowd of people without morals, spies, and intriguers of all kinds, who took possession of Versailles. The corrupt part of the courtiers placed themselves at the head of this wretched assemblage.’

M. DE BESENVAL vindicates his patron and friend the Duke de Choiseul, from the disgrace of having promoted *Maupeou* the younger; and he tells us that this hated minister owed his advance to the king’s own suggestion. ‘The act of cashiering the parliaments,’ he adds, ‘very much increased the alienation of the people from the government:’ yet is he of opinion

that this act would have been a salutary one, if it had been properly followed up.—He seems to be very much disturbed by the political interference of the women, against whom he indulges in frequent *tirades*. Observing their vehemence against *Madame du Barry*, he pours out a philippic on the occasion; and he states, that, in consequence of the decree abolishing the parliaments, the women became the supporters of what they called the *Fundamental Constitutions of the State*. ‘At conversations, at suppers, nothing else was the theme; assemblies for society and pleasure were become small states general, in which the women, transformed into legislators, quoted maxims of public law, cited history, and laid down principles with a confidence and an earnestness with which the importance and celebrity of the business inspired them.’

The reader will recollect that these scenes took place four years before the death of Louis XV. What can equal the blindness of the court, when, with such plain symptoms before its eyes, it could abet and aid the revolt of the British colonies, and transport the youth of the country and its troops to that school of republicanism?—The excess of corruption will appear from this anecdote:

‘As the Duke *de Choiseul* and some others were one day riding with the king, the latter asked the minister to guess the sum which he had paid for the carriage in which they were then seated; he replied that it was worth five or six thousand livres, but that his majesty, paying a royal price, might have perhaps been charged eight thousands. “You are very much out in your calculation,” answered the king; “it costs me, as you see it, thirty thousand livres.” The minister proposed seriously to the king, a few days afterward, to remedy these abuses in the household, offering to undertake the task himself, if Louis would assist him in it. “My dear friend,” said the king, “these robberies in my house are enormous, but it is impossible to put a stop to them; too many people, too many powerful people are interested in them, for us to flatter ourselves with the hope of abolishing them. All the ministers, whom I have had, have formed the project of remedying this evil: but they have abandoned it in despair. Cardinal *Fleury* was very powerful, since he was master of France, but he died without having carried into effect any one of his ideas on this subject. So believe me, compose yourself, and disregard a mischief which does not admit of cure.”

This purification, not many years afterward, under happier auspices, was accomplished by M. *Necker*, and was quoted with great eloquence and happy effect by Mr. Burke in the British Parliament, in his celebrated speech on economical reform.

Pope Benedict XIV. was fond of observing that there must be a providence, since France flourished under Louis XV.; and certainly, while that prince was doing every thing that was cal-

lated to weaken authority, and to undermine the state, the throne remained unshaken during his time, amid all the symptoms of approaching ruin. He relied on the hold which antient institutions maintained on the minds of the people, and on their habits of obedience. It is evident also that he possessed more of understanding, however much debilitated it might be by his dissolute conduct, than fell to the share of his unfortunate successor. Louis XVI. the most timid of men, little favoured by nature, and wholly without experience or information, yielding to the best intentions, took a course the opposite of that which his grandfather had followed, and proposed to rest his power on the good will of his subjects. Their affections he resolved to secure by acts corresponding with his dispositions, which were laudable and benevolent; and relying on these, the well-meaning monarch ventured into a track which would have been hazardous to a sovereign of the greatest wisdom and firmness, but for which no man was ever less qualified than Louis XVI. The history of every proceeding, that called for judgment and decision, shews how limited was his understanding, how destitute he was of discernment, and how utterly void of firmness was his nature. The Baron appears to be fully sensible of the monarch's want of capacity to discharge the ordinary duties of his arduous and elevated situation. The re-establishment of the Parliaments without conditions, and the blind confidence placed in the frivolous, mischievous, and pitiful dotard *Maurepas*, at the very commencement of his reign, displayed in open day his glaring deficiencies.

The following portrait of Marie Antoinette, we believe, is more just than the glowing picture which procured the object of it in this country so many admirers, and which made so many proselytes to the cause in which she was suffering. The very shrewd Baron had lived some time in her intimate confidence, knew her well, and remained to the last on the best terms with her.

“ Though the Queen (says he) was not strictly a beauty, nor a fine woman, nor a correct figure, yet her lively countenance, her striking carriage, and the elegance of her person, gave her a superiority over many who were more indebted to nature. Her character was gentle and prepossessing. She felt strongly for the unfortunate, and she took delight in succouring and protecting them. A strong propensity to pleasure, and a great portion of coquetry and levity, though but little of natural gaiety, occasioned her to appear with less advantage in society than might have been expected from her solid good qualities, and her personal charms. She had no fixed sentiments. Her familiarity was injurious to her consideration; while the demeanour, which she was obliged to assume in particular circumstances, was inconsistent

inconsistent with the character which she affected, that of an amiable woman. She had been endowed with no education. She never opened a book, except occasionally a romance; nor did she even seek the information which might be collected in society; the moment an affair became serious, she was seized with *ennui*, and the discussion was cut short. Her conversation wandered, and flew from object to object. The tale of the day, and court scandal, were her amusement. She never could be persuaded to apply to any thing like business, but filled up her time with frivolities. She had a complete ascendancy over the king, and latterly swayed him in most of his determinations.

The Baron also furnishes us with a sketch of the Dutchess *de Polignac*; who, possessed of the entire favour and confidence of the Queen, was regarded for many years as the principal mover in all the measures of the court of Versailles; and who, it is well known, is most unfavourably depicted in all the revolutionary publications.

‘She had the most charming countenance that ever was bestowed on mortal; and it was impossible to say which feature bore the preference. Her shape, and the rest of her figure, did not entirely correspond with the perfection of her face: but she deservedly passed for the finest woman of her time, and the one who pleased most universally. Her character was more perfect than her person; that which formed its basis was a calmness which was never disturbed by any situation, circumstance, or object, not even by personal events the most calculated to discompose. This quality enabled her justly to estimate things, and to be as much above prejudice as she was free from enthusiasm. She was most remote from presumption; and she would often frankly say, “What you state to me is above my capacity.” Her carriage, her actions, her conversation, even the tones of her voice, partook decidedly of gentleness. She was of a tender sympathizing nature; and she never refused that succour to distress which it was in her power to bestow. Fond of domestic happiness, she looked to the loss of her influence rather as desirable, than as a matter of dread; and she valued her power and her fortune more on account of her friends than herself. Her great fault arose from that tranquil nature which she possessed, and which occasioned her to be negligent in a thousand matters to which she ought to have vigilantly attended, considering the situation in which she stood, and the confidence reposed in her by the Queen.’

Very different pictures of this lady, we are well aware, have been exhibited to the public; and perhaps the charms of person, and the attentions of a fascinating woman, have rather dazzled the judgment of the Baron. If *Madame de P.* was not the fiend which the revolutionists describe her to have been, neither probably was she the simple inoffensive good creature which she appears under the pencil of M. DE BESENVAL.

The Abbé *Sieyès*, previously to the horrors which incensed all the world against the demagogic proceedings of the French, was complimented

complimented by his partisans with the title of the "*engineer of the revolution*". What the credit may be which this ascription, if just, would insure him, we shall leave to be estimated by others; only observing that his functions, and those of his coadjutors, were of a very humble and ordinary nature; since they only assisted a mouldering edifice to crumble, and helped to pull down that which was about to fall of its own accord. The *engineers of the revolution* were personages of a superior order to the Abbé *Sieyès* and his fraternity; it was by the inmates, the guardians, and the defenders of the fortress, that it was undermined and battered; it was by the last two monarchs and their advisers, and their ill fortune, that the mighty downfall was effected that has caused agitations to which no defineable period can be assigned.

Another sketch, which we shall borrow from this artist, who paints strongly, is that of the Comte de *Maurepas*; who makes so considerable a figure in the tragic story of Louis XVI. and of whom the Baron says,

'Accosting him on every subject that entered my mind, I had an opportunity of sounding his depth; whether from indiscretion or levity I know not, but he gave full answers to all my inquiries, and often told me more than I had asked. I found him consummate in court intrigues, hackneyed in business, but careless about every thing except his own credit, and the sort of men who were to be admitted into the ministry; in which situation, he would have only creatures who were to depend entirely on him, and whom he could annihilate with a breath. Every transaction he made a theme of pleasantry, and every individual an object of sarcasm. No man approached him whom he did not lash in this way, and on whom he did not exercise his powers of ridicule. It was into the hands of this minister, that the unfortunate Louis XVI. was thrown, on his accession, wholly without experience; and after having received the worst possible education under the Duke de *Vaughon*. This crafty old courtier only studied how to govern the monarch, without giving him a single idea on the subject of the government of his people.'

We know few men whose memory will more excite detestation than this selfish, unfaithful, treacherous minister; who, to serve his own purposes, contrived to keep his unsuspecting confiding master in that ignorance which cost him at once his crown and his life. On the subject of the baseness of this unworthy statesman, one opinion only has prevailed; with regard to him, the writers of all factions are agreed.

In these volumes, we find a paper intitled '*of the society of kings*'; which, as coming from an experienced courtier, and a most faithful servant and subject, possesses no common interest. The Baron, not less loyal than Mr. Burke, is not less free in his animadversions on the imperfections of kings. His observations

tions are conceived in the true spirit of philosophy, without the affectation of it, and form a satisfactory comment on the dicta thrown out by Mr. Burke in a speech before mentioned.

‘ This society charms at first, and it is grateful to kings to be allowed to be familiar, while the royal favour crowns the wishes of the courtier : but there is no intimacy which is attended with more inconveniencies, nor which is subject to more vicissitudes. An unfounded disadvantageous rumour may hurt a man in society, but there his judges are more considerate, as being subject to similar inconveniencies, and as being in the habit of estimating the credit due to such reports; kings, on the contrary, so much separated from the rest of the world, cannot enter into this calculation; and they resign themselves absolutely to the public voice, to that of their mistresses, confessors, or their society, if they have any.

‘ Sovereigns are men, and as such more disposed to yield to unfavourable than to good impressions. Often with them a word is sufficient to impair the reputation of a person, to put a stop to his good fortune, and even to ruin him. Let it, then, be judged under what continual constraint an honest and honorable man must be placed, who enjoys the familiarity of kings; unless he constantly restricts himself to the inglorious part of applauding, excusing, or of being silent.

‘ With kings there is no subject of conversation. We certainly are not to speak of politics to them, nor of the news of the day; neither can administration be made the topic. Many events, which happen in society, cannot be related to them; and not a word must be said to them on religion, of which they are the guardians.

‘ Former wars, antient history, facts which are even but little remote sciences, and belles lettres, might furnish conversation, but where are the courtiers who are conversant with these points? The kings also are not numerous, to whom this strain would be intelligible. The subjects, then, for this high converse, must be supplied by common place affairs, the theatres, and the chase. Let us not persuade ourselves that we can interest kings by flattering their taste, since they rarely have any. They find so much facility in gratifying it, that it passes before they have even fully enjoyed it. In order to participate in pleasures, we must combat contrarieties, surmount difficulties, and feel privations. The love of glory or the chase can alone place kings in this situation; and we always see the one or the other of these predilections form their ruling passion; the love of glory has possession of those of an elevated disposition, while the chase is the pursuit when the mind is of the ordinary standard.

‘ Since the regard for kings cannot be otherwise than interested, suspicion becomes the basis of their character; and this feeling renders intimate connections impossible. Accustomed to homage, they believe that all is due *to* them, and that nothing is due *from* them. The courtier who is most injured by them must redouble his attentions, lest his imperious master should suspect that he resents the treatment, charge him with insolence, drive him from his presence, and thus cut him off from the hopes which his whole life has been employed to realize. Let not kings be censured; it is on the cupidity and baseness of all who surround them that we ought to animadvert.

madvert. It is the first duty of a sovereign to maintain good order; he watches over it every moment, restrains those who would disturb it, and sometimes sacrifices his own inclinations for its preservation. This sort of occupation is not favourable to grand thoughts, but it insures tranquillity, without which there is no enjoyment.

The circumstance, which has ever appeared to me the most revolting in the society of kings, is that of having no will but theirs, of sacrificing one's pleasures and affairs to the lightest of their caprices, and with a submission and a readiness which exclude from the compliance every idea of merit. When it is also considered that the restraint of the most profound respect continually affects all that is said and done, even in the freest moments, it will be admitted that the jealousy and the enemies which are ever the appendages of royal favour are dearly purchased. It is a mistake to suppose that this familiarity with the monarch enables a man to solicit favours: for he must on no account presume to do this, or he runs the utmost risk of being for ever undone.

It is a great question whether it is best that kings should cultivate society, or should shut themselves up in their palaces, and never appear but when surrounded with splendour and form. If on the one hand society meliorates the character of kings, presents them with a view of those ties which unite men, and of the reciprocal duties which that union requires, the difference between the education of the sovereign and that of private individuals gives the latter the advantage in this intercourse; and this commerce also acquaints the subjects with the imperfections and defects of the monarch; thus inducing an unfavourable opinion, the greatest misfortune perhaps that can befall a state. When kings, then, lay aside their grandeur, should they conceal themselves from the view of their subjects, and should they be regarded by them as those mysterious personages to whom they only owe the homage of respect? Let a wiser head than mine decide this question, with respect to courtiers. I subscribe to the opinion implied in the saying of Henry IV. *Happy the country gentleman who lives on his estate, and who does not know me!*

The e are the sentiments of a man near the close of life, who had spent most of his days in a court; sometimes enjoying distinguished favour, and always possessing great credit and consideration. It will be perceived that many of these observations, able and sensible as they are, only apply to the case of absolute monarchs; without being founded when made to refer to that of sovereigns whose powers are defined, and in whom the authority of the state is vested conjointly with other orders.

If our disapprobation has been strongly called forth by a few, and but a few, instances in which the pen of the Baron has given countenance to moral irregularities, this feeling has not blinded us to the great general worth of his character. When it is considered that his infancy and youth were consumed in camps, and that he passed the prime of life and the remainder of his days in a licentious and profligate court, the censure ought to be

be gentle, and the applause cordial; and if a strong-courtly bias pervades every page of these narrations, the situation of the author is an ample apology for it.

It is impossible for us to give the reader an adequate idea of the strong light which these volumes throw on the reigns of the last two monarchs of the House of Bourbon. The observations which are made are neither refined nor brilliant, but they are those of a man of solid understanding, versed in a knowledge of the world and the intrigues of the court, and well acquainted with the course of public business. If there be several of his remarks in which we cannot coincide, we regard the greater number as extremely well founded. His *facts* and his representations, however, are the parts which enhance the value of his communications in our estimation; and in this view they will be of eminent use to the future historian. Yet we must not omit to state that, if the materials be authentic, they have been huddled together without any arrangement, assortment, or digest. If also the author's sketches be in general faithful, he rarely attempts a whole figure, or even a complete face; and the limbs and features lie scattered from one end of the volume to the other.

ART. IX. *Les Souvenirs de M. Le Comte DE CAYLUS, &c.; i. e.*

The Recollections of the Count DE CAYLUS, Member of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres; printed from his inedited Manuscripts, intended as a Supplement to the Recollections of Madame de Caylus, his Mother: with some Letters, also hitherto unpublished, from that Countess to her Son; and preceded by an historical Notice of the Life and Works of that Academician. 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 368. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

THE anonymous editor of these detached pieces has not condescended to inform us in what manner he procured them, nor by what proofs he can establish their authenticity. The spirit and style of many of them certainly bespeak a mind of sensibility and refinement; and it may be true that he, whose name they bear, really collected them from his own observation, or from persons worthy of credit: but all this is too vague to satisfy the inquisitive and discerning. It is likewise not unreasonable to suppose that the person, who had access to the original papers of the Count DE CAYLUS, might have added something to the tame and hackneyed account of his life and writings. In vain, however, we have looked for untold anecdotes, or the recital of those literary incidents which form the charm of biographical writing; and which our grave philosophers

phers too often disdain in their dignified but frigid narratives. The present sketch is little more than a meagre compression of *Lebeau's* meagre *Eloge*. The few circumstances which are mentioned are highly creditable to the memory of Count CAYLUS: but they were already sufficiently known to every reader who is conversant in French literature.

Most of the little historical notices, which are inserted in these posthumous volumes, would have excited a lively interest at the times to which they refer: but a new generation has sprung up, and events of unprecedented magnitude have absorbed the attention and feelings of mankind. To the dark and contemptible intrigues of the Count *d'Olivarez*, the disgrace of *Fouquet*, the motives which induced the Chancellor *Pont Chartrain* to retire, &c. &c. we now listen as to "a tale that has been told." If the memorandums, to which we allude, really flowed from the pen of Count CAYLUS, they prove that his activity of mind extended to the character and private conduct of great personages, and that he was an acute observer of those court intrigues in which he never participated.

The 'Story of Pamphilus and Melazia' is a pretty and diverting *jeu d'esprit*, addressed to Madame \*\*\* on the trying situation of a *cornuto*.

The gallant and ambitious views of Mad. *de Prye*, and her influence at court, form the subject of some curious pages. These are followed by a long and eloquent letter from Father *Goussin*, Confessor to Louis XIII. exhorting Mad. *La Fayette* to persevere in her profession of a nun; and retracing the history of her pious resolutions, and of her separation from the king.—The first volume concludes with the following portrait:

'Madame *de St. Fierie* is no longer young: but Nature, unwilling to lose what she had done for her beauty, seems to have studied to preserve it entire. Her's are not passing charms; nor is her beauty merely that which *has been*. In her, every thing is noble:—her countenance, her taste, the tone of her voice, the style of her letters, her speech, and her polite attentions. Her words are select without affectation, and her converse is agreeable and interesting. She forgets nothing, and she has seen much: but she regulates the extent of her recitals by the pleasure of others. Without omitting any important circumstance, she leaves us to regret the shortness of the facts. If books were composed in the manner in which she speaks, the love of reading would be a general virtue. She chuses her friends with admirable discernment; and her friendship is courageous, and proof against every attack.

'Yet, as all excellence usually borders on defect, the sensibility of her heart sometimes prevents her from seeing objects as they are; and her delicacy in regard to her friends is sometimes the cause of her withholding

withholding from them, and consequently from herself, what is due to justice.

'Naturally destitute of presumption, she leaves to others the care of knowing and estimating her character. The manner in which she listens gratifies those who speak to her, and allows them not to doubt that she hears them with favourable attention: for nobody is more observant, and nobody more prepossessing. Would to heaven, that her example might correct the women of the present day! She is the better qualified to serve them as a pattern, because the gentleness of her manners naturally inspires confidence. In short, she is a person destined to move in the higher circles; and who gives us an idea of all that is said of the genuine politeness of the court.'

The portrait of M. d' *Ablé* is touched with the same delicate discrimination, but the subject is less engaging.

The section which is intitled '*Anecdotal Recollections, Bons Mots, and Short Reflections,*' consists chiefly of short extracts from antient writers, and was certainly never intended for publication, in its present form. These passages were, perhaps, inserted occasionally in a common-place book, with the view of illustrating particular points of antiquarian criticism: but, in their loose and disjointed state, they are little calculated to fix the attention of the reader. A few, however, may be quoted for their point, or humour:

'A king of Egypt was so successful in training monkeys to the art of dancing, that they were long admired for the dexterity of their movements. At length, a citizen, who loved fun, threw some walnuts into the ball room; when the creatures instantly forgot all their capers, and sprang to the booty.'

'In order to judge of a clever man, we must be as clever as he is.'

'Some painters have figured Fortune blind, and on a rolling rock, while others have given her hands and wings, but no feet. When Apelles was asked why he represented her in a sitting posture, he replied, because she had not yet learned to stand on her feet.'

The next portrait is that of the Countess of *Rocheport*. Though too exquisitely finished not to suffer by translation, we doubt not that the English reader may be pleased even with an imperfect copy of part of the picture:

'Madame *de Rocheport* is young, and of that age in which taste is, for the most part, indicated only by its first perceptions. That age is to life what spring is to nature. Flowers are its only ornament.

'But when poets have allowed their imagination to sport in agreeable fictions, they have fancied regions in which the smiling graces of spring are blended with the fruits of summer and autumn, and in which even hope may be realized.

'Madame *de Rocheport* belongs to these regions: they are her native country and her home.

'Her figure presents at first nothing that is particularly attractive: but it improves on being contemplated.

'It

‘ It is the image of the morning, when the sun has not yet risen, and when we have a confused perception of a thousand agreeable objects. When she speaks, her countenance awakens; when she becomes animated, her expression is decidedly apparent; when she smiles, life kindles in her frame; and we at length love to gaze on her as on a landscape in which no separate object arrests attention, but of which the whole composition delights the spectator.

‘ Should she ever cast her eyes on this portrait, I shall tell her news of herself: for she is quite unconscious of all her worth; and others, from this very reason, perceive it, and feel it the more.’—

The gallantries of Mary of Medicis, and the incestuous amours of Cardinal *Richelieu*, are treated with more elegance and interest than such odious subjects deserve.

In another section, the author laments the decline of French literature, and ascribes the perversion of the public taste and the decay of the fine arts to an imitation of English manners and fashions. ‘ Every body, from the cradle, (as it were) wishes to be a master. Anglomania, above all, has spoiled the nation. A pretended philosophism has been imported from London, with the jockeys.’—Our censors now retort that we import philosophism from Paris; and this mutual recrimination reminds us of the following French epigram:

*Dorillas et Damon, ces deux fameux poëtes,*

*Sur leurs vers ne sont pas d'accord:*

*“ On ne peut sans bâiller lire ce que vous faites,”*

*Dit l'un: “ En vous lisant,” répond l'autre, “ on s'en dort.”*

*L'un a raison, et l'autre n'a pas tort.*

We shall pass over some portraits, and the anecdotes relative to the amours of Louis XIV. to make room for part of the *shade* of Cardinal *Richelieu*:

‘ The mind of this man was lively and active, but always restless, and the constant enemy of the public peace, and of his own. Many reckoned him a great and astonishing character. Yet some of his intimate friends remarked in his composition a large portion of folly. Every thing fretted or shocked, and nothing soothed nor contented him. He long continued firm and powerful, more by his own authority and the empire which he violently usurped over the public mind, than by the kindness of his sovereign; and the accomplishment of his foolish schemes is to be ascribed rather to good fortune, than to his own prudence, or to the vigour of his counsels. In one respect, however, he was too *unfortunate*, since heaven manifested its chastisement in those loathsome maladies, with which it afflicted him to the last:—that heaven from which he might have drawn stable comfort, salvation, and bliss, had he not preferred to seek for happiness in the ruin and misery of others, and in his own sufferings and perpetual torments.

‘As both sorts of bile were his ordinary executioners and ours, after he had discharged his venom on the multitude, there still remained much more in reserve for his own wretchedness.

‘He was more ambitious than all the rest of the world combined; he was as covetous as any individual who can be mentioned; and while he was prodigal and lavish of the substance of the people, and of the revenues of his prince, he was extremely economical of his own.

‘If he was cruel to those who offended him, he was irreconcilable to those whom he had once injured.

‘In return for the numberless favours which he received from the Queen-mother, who had raised him to the summit of influence and honour, this ungrateful man ceased not from his machinations, till he had created a misunderstanding between her and the king, her son; till he compelled her to quit France, and wander, as a fugitive, from kingdom to kingdom, from city to city, and, at length, to take refuge in Cologne, where she expired in consequence of his wicked devices. That he might triumph over her even after death, and testify his immortal hatred, he controuled at pleasure the terms of her last will; and for five months, during which he continued to live, he denied the right of sepulture to her remains, which, during all that time, had no other grave than her chamber.—

‘He condemned many noblemen of distinction to perpetual imprisonment, and many more to banishment.

‘He made his king’s court a desert to increase his own; and he proscribed an incredible number of people of rank and military station, lest they should oppose his pernicious counsels. In short, the French never manifested so much moderation, and never contemplated more calamitous and bloody scenes.’—

The rest of the canvass is of the same horrible colouring, and seriously admonishes the rulers of nations to beware of delegating power to an unprincipled individual.

Only three letters are published as from the pen of the Countess of Caylus: which, though neatly expressed, have no claims on our particular notice.

In concluding our report, we have to observe, in general, that these *Recollections* contain several passages that are at once entertaining and beautiful; others which possess no peculiar attractions; and a few which all who are interested in the preservation of good morals could wish to blot out for ever. In several places we have perceived a want of precision in the style, and a strange partiality to laconic sentences and paragraphs: but the performance, on the whole, whether posthumous or not, can scarcely fail to be acceptable to those readers who are fond of memoirs, anecdotes, and sketches of distinguished characters.

ART. X. *Tableau Elémentaire de Botanique, &c.*; i. e. An Elementary View of Botany, in which all the constituent Parts of Vegetables are explained in the most intelligible Manner; with an Account of the Systems of *Tournefort* and *Linné*, and of the natural Families of *Jussieu*. By SEBASTIAN GERARDIN (*de Mirecourt*), Ex-Professor of Natural History in the Central School of the Vosges, and attached to the Museum of Natural History of Paris. 8vo. pp. 470. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8s. sewed.

THIS modest treatise is professedly destined for those botanical students, who cannot easily afford the more expensive elementary works. It is dedicated to *François de Neufchâteau*, President of the Conservative Senate; &c.; who, in the midst of a bustling political career, has deigned to direct his attention to the promotion of science. From a marginal note annexed to the preliminary discourse, we are sorry to observe that the author, who has devoted thirty years of his life to the study of Natural History, has been obliged to struggle with those pecuniary embarrassments which so often repress the zeal and ardour of inquiry.

Previously to entering on the explanatory parts of his work, M. GERARDIN gives a short historical abstract of the progress of Botany, from the earliest to the present times; and succinct biographical sketches of *Tournefort*, *Linné*, and *Bernard de Jussieu*.

The subject of the book properly commences with definitions of Botany and Vegetables, and then treats successively of the seed, germination, roots, stems, branches, external and internal organization, buds, leaves, organs of reproduction, times of flowering, constituent parts and modifications of the flowers, of the fruit, diseases, and death of plants; and these physiological details are succeeded by an exposition of the methods of botanists, especially of those of *Tournefort*, *Linné*, and *Jussieu*. This ample and accurate view of the modern nomenclature of the science is followed by some excellent directions for laying out a Botanic Garden to the best advantage, on a small scale; and for preparing a *hortus siccus* according to the author's successful practice. The medical virtues of plants most generally known are set down in alphabetical order. An analytical table of the contents, and an explanation of the plates, (which are very neatly executed,) conclude the volume.

From this rapid sketch of M. GERARDIN's publication, it will be manifest that it can afford little scope for criticism, or entertaining extracts. The various definitions and explanations are stated with becoming plainness and precision; and if the

reader should sometimes wish for more particular information, he should recollect that the author purposely aimed at brevity, and intended only a volume of moderate size. The writings, from which he seems chiefly to have condensed his compilation, are those of his countrymen *Jussieu*, *Lamarck*, *Desfontaines*, and *Ventenat*: while the list of the medical properties of the most popular plants is avowedly borrowed from *Gilbert's Demonstrations de Botanique*, *Buchan's Domestic Medicine*, and the *Encyclopédie Methodique*. Here we may be allowed to express our regret that no mention is made of *Woodville's Medical Botany*; and that the alleged uses are, in general, noted with too little discrimination.

The subsequent remarks will be found to merit the attention of the curious:

‘It was long supposed, is still believed, and has been repeatedly affirmed to me by the forest officers, that the number of the years of a tree can be ascertained by that of its concentric ligneous layers. But this is, doubtless, a fallacious criterion; for the celebrated *Duhamel* has very properly observed, that there are a great many trees which do not complete a layer in the course of a year; while others, from causes which are unknown to us, produce several in the same space of time.

‘Some botanists have imagined that the vegetable life of trees depends in part on the existence of their pith. Hence we may presume that they never saw, as we do every day, many willows, oaks, &c. of a considerable diameter, which are not only hollow within, but often retain only the half or the fourth part of their trunk; and that, too, of a very trifling thickness, covered with a rotten bark, and which nevertheless produce every year new branches, leaves, and even fruit.

‘An important observation of *M. Ramatuel*, communicated by *M. Ventenat*, in his excellent *Botanical Dictionary*, p. 48. strikes us as too interesting to be passed over in silence. “Such exotic plants,” says he, “as have scaly buds both at the base of the leaves and at the top of the stems, can exist in the open air, whereas those which have them at the base of the leaves only will perish unless they be reared in a hot house.” I have tried the experiment indicated by these authors, in my own garden, which is exposed to a very cold temperature, and it has completely succeeded.’

The original parts of *M. GERARDIN's* book, and which are really intitled to the consideration of every botanist, are those which relate to the distribution of a garden, and the proper management of an herbal: but, as we cannot follow him in all his details, especially without the aid of the plates,—and as those who are anxious to avail themselves of his instructions will, no doubt, have recourse to the original,—we shall only mention that, in the course of two or three years, an *arpent* of neglected surface was converted into the orderly and beautiful repository of nine hundred and fifty-seven species of herba-

ceous

ceous plants, and one hundred and twenty trees and shrubs; and that the author's herbal consists of twenty-two port folios, containing between two and three thousand species, in the most approved state of preservation.

Should any of our countrymen be induced to translate this Elementary Essay, we would recommend the suppression of those parts which relate to the methods of *Tournefort* and *Jussieu*, and which are chiefly adapted to the exigencies of continental botanists. This retrenchment would, in course, leave room for a greater extent of more important explanations; or it might admit the incorporation of the most useful parts of other works of a similar description.

ART. XI. *Voyage en Portugal, &c.; i. e. Travels in Portugal*, by the Count of HOFFMANSEGG, prepared for the Press by M. Link, being a Supplement to his Travels in the same Country. 8vo. pp. 350. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 6s. sewed.

BY referring to the 41st volume of our New Series (p. 167.) the reader will find an account of Professor Link's Travels in Portugal; and we mentioned that, on his return to Germany, he left his companion, the Count of HOFFMANSEGG, to prosecute some farther journeys in the same country. The object of this supplementary volume is to correct some misstatements which occur in the preceding, and to convey the additional information suggested by the Count's subsequent excursions. M. Link holds himself responsible for the manner in which he has digested the materials, and for the physical and moral observations which he has blended with them.

The first chapter contains a series of rather minute and dry remarks on the province of *Tras os Montès*. The elevated soil of this district frequently gives birth to plants which are not found in the lower valleys of Portugal; and the *Serra de Navalbeira* is particularly noticed on account of its fertility and diversified vegetation. Among other rare plants, it produces *Pistacia Terebinthus*, the wild vine, which twists round the trunks of the largest trees to the height of forty or fifty feet; *Saxifraga hypnoides*; and various mosses which overgrow the rocks. This valley is narrow, picturesque, and covered with brushwood.—The only iron foundry in the kingdom is at *Chapa Cunha*, under the direction of Antonio Braga, who has introduced some important improvements in the process of converting the ore into metal. The same gentleman discovered plumbago at *Ventizello*: but he was enjoined by the government to desist from his researches.

In the second chapter, which relates to the province of *Entre Minho e Douro*, the obliging and disinterested hospitality of the inhabitants of the banks of the Homen is commemorated with warmth and gratitude. We are here transported into 'a new Arcadia, surrounded by inaccessible rocks, where the traveller is received with boundless confidence and an unceasing cheerfulness, which sweeten every moment of his stay.'

With respect to this province in general, 'Southern Europe,' the author remarks, 'presents no country in which, under a temperate and even a warm climate, are to be found so many valleys shaded by beautiful trees, and watered by limpid streams;—in which, too, the culture of the ground, and the active industry of a numerous population, are combined with the charms of nature. I may add, a country of which the amiable inhabitants welcome every traveller with confidence and kindness.'

'*Minho*, compared with the other provinces, contains a great many considerable towns and villages. A part of the population is, however, scattered in detached houses. There are *Concelhos* of two thousand and even of five thousand families, including the separate dwellings, which are dispersed to some distance from the place itself. This circumstance forms one of the principal comforts of the district. When we have reached one of these fine valleys, we always travel among men; one habitation succeeds another; a continued shade protects us from the solar rays; and clear rivulets diffuse that agreeable coolness, which, under these degrees of latitude, is felt with a gratification unknown to the inhabitants of northern countries. The fair plains of the south of Europe, as for example those of Italy, borrow their charms from art. The Appennines, if we except a few valleys, present a sombre and uniform aspect, and the upper parts of Italy and the south of France begin to verge too much to the north. According to the descriptions of antient and modern authors, the beautiful Tempe must resemble one of these delightful valleys of the *Minho*.'

The province of *Beira* forms the subject of the third chapter. One of the principal objects, on which the writer here dwells with complacency, is the romantic and majestic site of the convent of *Bussaco*. This religious house is occupied by Carmelite monks of the order of *Marianos*; and without permission from the General of the order, no stranger is allowed to intrude on their privacy. Much of their time is passed in the performance of stated acts of devotion; and their rules proscribe *butcher's meat* and *conversation*. They are, however, permitted to talk to one another once in a fortnight, during an evening walk. The prior alone can receive and converse with strangers; and as none had visited him for a long time, he amply availed himself of his privilege, and talked incessantly with these travellers. They were treated

treated with vegetables, eggs, and cod, (which were all very nicely dressed,) and with excellent wine.

The Benedictine nuns of *Ferreira de Aves* are by no means subjected to the law of taciturnity; for we are told that their conversation was very animated, that they spoke much, and that they laughed immoderately.

On the 4th of June 1800, Count HOFFMANSEGG had nearly perished in the snow of Estrella. His critical situation is detailed in his own words: but the passage is too long for our quotation.

The island of *Murraceira* is remarked on account of its salt pools, and the spontaneous growth of *Mesembryanthemum nodiflorum*, a rare plant in Europe.

On the small river *Prisco*, a lead mine was discovered in 1740: but though the ore yields 92 per cent. (query?), and the vein is very large, it has never been worked with permanent advantage, owing to the injudicious interference of government.—A colliery at *Capo de Buarcos* will probably be lost to the public from bad management and neglect, some of the workings being already under water.

Thus far, we have not particularly adverted to the Professor's corrections of his former journals, because they chiefly relate to errors of orthography and mistakes in etymology. At the bottom of page 144, he informs us that he is now enabled to rectify his notions concerning the height of the mountains in Portugal, and we were prepared for much specific detail and calculation: but we only learn that the highest summit of *Geréz*, which had been stated to be 4000 feet above the level of the sea, is scarcely 3000; and that the *Estrella* is more elevated than it had been supposed. These conclusions, so far as we can perceive, rest on physical indications of temperature, which are much too vague for the purposes of accurate estimation.

Chapter the fourth contains the alterations and additions to the former account of *Estramadura*. Several are noticed under *Lisbon*: but, as that city has been so often described, we shall not stop to report them in detail.

Two of the Professor's annotations on his own text may serve to relieve the general gravity of his relations:

In vol. I. p. 275. I mentioned that a lady of distinction at Caldas in the *Geréz*, who was sitting before her door, had laid her head on the lap of her chambermaid, to get rid of some troublesome companions. The Portuguese admit not the fact, and assure me that their women have no vermin, but only feel a pleasure in having their head scratched. This may be the case; for my information on the subject is not very precise. I admit, however, that the inhabitants of these fine countries contrive to procure some such means of irritation;

and if the ladies cannot enjoy the tickling sensation, without sacrificing appearances, I here present them with my public apology.'

'I remarked (vol. I. p. 294.) that *Kastner* stands first in the list of corresponding Members of the Academy of Lisbon; and one of my friends observed that this man's reputation must be very high. It is not his reputation, however, which has determined his academical rank, but his Christian name *Alpham*, for in Portugal, the alphabetical order is always determined by the *primum*. This worthy man would be tempted to smile, were it still in his power to peruse these lines.'

The ensuing passage is of some importance in a geological point of view:

'Various relations, and the verbal assertion of *Dom Miguel*, had apprized me that basalt is very frequent in the neighbourhood of Lisbon; and, though I do not believe in the volcanic origin of the stone, I was reasonable enough to admit the coincidence of earthquakes with the existence of basalt and volcanoes. But I could discover only a narrow basaltic band, which, beginning at half a league behind *Belem*, partly disappears towards *Queluz*; continues, without interruption, behind *Belem*, and the valley of *Alcantara*, towards the lofty arches of the aqueduct; then turns in the direction of *Bemfica* and *Bellas*; and thus rejoins the first branch. Basalt generally forms only elevated summits: but here it appears in the shape of hills, which are overtopped in every direction by higher calcareous mountains. Hence I conjecture that the limestone involves the basalt (a very rare occurrence); and the examination of a particular spot on the banks of the river has strengthened my opinion. At the same time, it is possible that the limestone may have been precipitated from the more elevated range, and that the basalt may have been adjoined to the sides of the calcareous mountain. The small stripe of basalt, which we noticed at Cape St. Vincent's, has the same appearance. For the rest, we can discern no vestige of basalt, or of real volcanoes: and I have ascertained, by repeated observation, that the part of the city, on which the earthquake exercised its greatest ravages, reposes on a limestone bottom. The cause of the earthquakes, whatever it may be, resides beneath the calcareous strata. Portugal is a proof in point. This country contains a great many thermal springs, which, according to *Vasconcellos*, amount to two hundred; and, though this computation may be exaggerated, they are certainly more numerous than in any country of the same extent in Europe. It deserves to be particularly remarked, that the greatest number and the hottest of these springs issue from granite, which should be regarded as constituting the primitive mountains. We know that granite is the most ordinary basis of all other sorts of stones, that it is covered by others, and that none have been discovered beneath it. The principle, then, which imparts heat to these sources, exists either in or below the granite; and the hottest of them are cooled, as they pass through other kinds of stone. Hence the moderate heat of those springs which flow from calcareous or sand-stone-hills. This deep origin of hot springs, of volcanoes, and of earthquakes, can afford little confidence:

confidence to the inhabitants, since the explosions must produce effects proportionably violent and devastating.'

In the same chapter, we meet with some curious details concerning the Portuguese method of preserving snow in summer, and the manufacture of gun flints in the village of *Azenbeira*. The flint occurs in fragments of a foot, or of a foot and a half in thickness, dispersed in reddish sand. With a solitary iron tool, and singular dexterity acquired by practice, an expert cutter will easily finish two hundred flints in a day, for which he receives about 2s. 8d. sterling.

Chap. V. which treats of the province of *Alemteio*, affords some sensible observations with respect to prevailing abuses in the subordinate departments of public justice; a topic on which few preceding travellers have enlarged. The *Escrivaes*, or public notaries, are particularly stigmatized as ignorant, rude, cunning, and rapacious.—The regular military force of the country is estimated at between thirty-eight and thirty-nine thousand; a number very inadequate to garrison all the frontier towns, in the event of war. M. *Link*, at the same time, contends that the character of the Portuguese soldiers has been considerably under rated.

The sixth chapter presents a few detached remarks on the Kingdom of *Algarve*.—The Tunny fish arrives on the coasts of that province, from the north, in summer, but soon retires. If the sea about Cape St. Vincent's should happen to be much agitated, and discoloured with mud, which smells disagreeably, the shoals pass over to Africa, and disappoint the hopes of the fishermen.

According to the opinion of our botanical travellers, caprification is not essential to the maturity of the fruit :

'Female figs ripen without it, and the seeds of those which have not undergone the operation are more perfect than the seeds in those which have been punctured. In the late figs, however, nature develops the seed, and the fruit is less juicy. When the insect destroys the seed vessels, their appropriate nourishment is conveyed into the pulp. This fact accords with other observations. In proportion as the fruit is mellow and juicy, the seed is imperfectly unfolded; and, in the most succulent, it is in a great measure obliterated. To improve fruit-trees is only another expression for reducing them to a certain degree of debility, and destroying those sources of reproduction, which it is the constant object of nature to preserve.'

From the retrospective view of the country in general, which forms the subject of the seventh and last chapter, we may collect that Portugal is hilly and even mountainous; that its highest elevations are of granite; that a very considerable portion of it is characterized by schistose sand-stone, which includes the

the granite and other primitive rocks ;—and that primitive limestone forms the chain of mountains which extends from Lisbon to Coimbra.

On the gradations of the vegetable productions of this kingdom, we shall not at present enter ; because we expect more ample information from the *Flora Lusitanica*, which is now nearly ready for publication.

In birds and insects, this country is not particularly rich ; and among its quadrupeds, the only rare species seems to be the wild goat, described in the former part of the work.

The highways are, in general, wretched ; and the inns are far from comfortable, or commodious, though preferable to those of Castille. We may usually traverse the whole kingdom without fear of annoyance : but it is dangerous to offend any individual of power or influence ; and insults are usually avenged by the poignard. While the author vindicates the Portuguese from their alleged debasement of character, he allows that they are frivolous and loquacious, but remarks that they are at the same time lively, polite, and hospitable.

We need scarcely remind our readers that they are not to expect much entertainment from the perusal of a volume which is avowedly supplementary, and, in course, composed of broken and insulated details. When these, however, shall be regularly incorporated with the journals to which they refer, they will considerably enhance the merit and value of the whole. The style is rather tame, and seldom animated : but the author certainly deserves a respectable rank in the class of learned and serious tourists.

ART. XII. *Les Monumens Antiques, &c. ; i. e.* The Monuments of Antiquity in the Napoleon Museum, designed and engraved by *Thomas Piroli*, with an Explanation by *J. G. Schweighauser* and *L. P. Radel*, published by the Brothers *F. and P. Piranesi*. 4to. 18 Numbers. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 15s. each Number on Vellum Paper, or 7s. 6d. common.

THE beautiful remains of the Fine Arts, of which Italy has been plundered, or (to use the French phrase) which have been '*conquered by Bonaparte*,' form a splendid Museum at Paris, which at first was called the *Central*, but is now termed the *Napoleon Museum*. Of this collection, engravers and authors are availing themselves in different ways ; some preparing works in which designs and descriptions of the several objects are given with much elegance and expence ; while others are endeavouring, by plates and letter-press of less magnificence, to accommodate the capacity of ordinary purchasers. We have

have seen a superb edition in imperial folio \*, and another in humble octavo. The present edition in quarto occupies a middle place; and the publishers hope that the moderate price at which it is offered to subscribers (six francs per livraison or number) will place it within the reach of all amateurs, and of all public and private schools in Europe. The drawings from the busts, statues, &c. are asserted to have been taken with the most scrupulous attention, and the whole is intended to afford instruction to the antiquary and the artist.

In the classification of the multiplicity of objects contained in the Museum, some difficulty at first occurred: but it was finally decided to follow the historical order; and to exhibit the different representations of the same subject by the side of each other, for the sake of more easy comparison: so that, in the same *suite* or series, the lovers of antiquity may see, at one view, all the characters of each divinity, all the portraits of the same hero, all the circumstances of facts given under different forms, and all the costumes of different ages. Adopting this plan, the monuments relative to Mythology are placed first, according to the rank of the Grecian divinities; with whom are blended those subordinate mythological personages who are represented as dependent on them. The monuments belonging to the heroic and historical ages succeed, arranged as nearly as possible in chronological order; and the work (we are told) will finish with those decorative monuments, and other *morceaux*, which cannot properly be classed under either of the above-mentioned heads.

The author of the descriptions and explanations boasts of the friendship of M. *Visconti*, and professes to have availed himself in every practicable degree of his learned researches.

To enumerate the different antiques copied in this work would be to occupy two or three pages with a dry catalogue. It will therefore, we hope, be sufficient to say that this collection presents us with a variety of sculptures representing Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, Apollo, Æsculapius, Hygeia, Venus, Cupid, Ceres, Mars, Bacchus, Silenus, Hercules, &c. After these follow copies of the busts of Rome and the Nile, personified; of Jason, Theseus, Meleager, Paris, Achilles, Menelaus, Ajax, and Ulysses; of Homer, Euripides, Menander, Socrates, and other Grecian philosophers; of Alexander, Junius Brutus, Augustus, and the other Roman Emperors. Copies of Basso-Relievos are interspersed.

A plate representing the Laocoon is given in the 15th number, and the account of this celebrated groupe may be inserted as a specimen of the descriptions:

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\* See App. to M. R. Vol. xliv. N. S. p. 475.

No. 82. LAOCOON. 'Sadolei has composed a short poem on this monument, but it has produced a volume from the pen of Lessing; Winckelmann has given a poetical description of it; Mengs has discussed it after the manner of an artist; and finally to the several accounts already published, M. Visconti has annexed his particular remarks. The bare analysis of all that Antiquaries, men of Letters, and Artists have written on this statue, would exceed the limits to which, in a work of this kind, we must confine ourselves; and this article will perhaps be found sufficiently extended by our own observations. Nevertheless, we must preface them with a succinct description of the subject, as it is given in Virgil's *Æneid*, B. ii. v. 199, et seq.

"Laocoon, the son of Priam, and priest of Apollo, opposed the design of the Trojans to admit within their besieged city the wooden horse, containing the crafty Ulysses and the other Grecians; and he even dared to lance a dart against this fatal machine. But the artifice of Sinon, aided by the infatuation of the Trojans, prevailed. At the very moment when this insidious machine was about to be introduced within the walls of Troy, and when Laocoon was in the act of sacrificing to Neptune, two enormous serpents issued from the waves to assail him, coiled themselves around him and his two sons, and occasioned them all to expire by their venomous bites."

'A citation from the text of Pliny, (Lib. 36. § 5.) Edit *Hurdouin*, must be subjoined:

"That which has been injurious to the fame of certain individuals, in spite of the excellence of their productions, is the circumstance of their having worked together on the same piece, since one alone cannot merit the honour of the whole, and we do not choose the trouble of naming them all. Such is the case respecting the Laocoon in the palace of the Emperor Titus, which must be preferred to all the efforts of the painter's and of the statuary's art. Agesander, Polydorus, and Athenodorus, celebrated sculptors of Rhodes, united their joint abilities in forming out of a single block the groupe of the father and his sons, bound together by the beautiful folds of the serpents. In like manner (*similiter*) the Palatine mansions of the Cæsars have been enriched by those most beautiful statues, which were executed by Craterus in conjunction with Pythodorus, by Polydectes in co-operation with Hermolaus, by another Pythodorus with the assistance of Artemon, and by Aphrodisius Trallianus alone. The Pantheon of Agrippa was decorated by Diogenes the Athenian."

'This text has provoked a variety of critical discussions, undertaken with the view of discovering to what period of the arts this chef-d'œuvre belongs. Winckelmann and Visconti have ascribed it to the most brilliant period of the Greeks. Lessing supposes that it ought to be referred to the times of the first Roman Emperors, and founds his conjecture on the passage of Pliny just quoted.

'As to ourselves, the sense of this equivocal text appears to present a comparison only between those artists who united their labours in the same composition; and it does not seem to us clearly to assert the identity of the epoch in which all these artists might have flourished contemporaneously at Rome with those who produced the

Laocoon.

Laocoon. First, because it was at the baths of Titus on the Quirinal that the Laocoon was discovered, and it was the Palatine which the other artists had adorned; and moreover the periods at which these two palaces were embellished are very different. The word *similiter*, in the passage of Pliny, refers only to the custom of joint-operation, which was common to the artists of the Laocoon and those of the statues which enriched the Palatine; at least, the contrary sense is not evident; and *Poinset de Sivry*, who had no prejudice of opinion on the subject, has materially affected the sense of the word *similiter*, by thus translating this passage—"The different palaces of the Cæsars on the Palatine-mount were filled with excellent statues thus executed in common."

But *Winckelmann* himself replies to *Lessing* in his *Inedited Monuments*; and he opposes to his opinion the base of a statue found at Antium, which bears this inscription:

ΑΘΑΝΟΩΡΟΣ ΑΓΓΕΑΝΔΡΟΥ.  
ΡΟΔΙΟΣ ΕΠΙΘΗΞΕ.

It is clear that this inscription bears the names of the two fellow-labourers of the Laocoon. Now, according to *Winckelmann*, the characters are of an age much anterior to that of the Roman Emperors; and if so, the authors of this groupe flourished at a period antecedent to that which some have thought to be intimated by the text of Pliny.

To this proof, *Winckelmann* adds that the heads of the two sons of Laocoon are in the same style with the heads of the two sons of Niobe at Florence; and we add to this remark, with still more probability, that the head of Laocoon, which we have recently and closely examined, is in the same style with that of Menelaus, (an undoubted Grecian statue,) particularly in the forehead, and in the execution of the hair and the beard.

*Lessing* opposes to this imaginary antiquity, the silence of the Grecian writers, and of *Pausanias* in particular; who would not have failed, says he, to have mentioned this *chef d'œuvre*. But, if it were one of the first monuments transported from Greece into Italy, ought we to be surprised that no notice has been taken of it by Grecian authors; and as *Pausanias*, was he not posterior by a century to the epoch in which we know that the Laocoon adorned the mansion of Titus?

We should conclude on adopting the sentiments of *Winckelmann*, and we should think that the chisel whence this *chef d'œuvre* proceeded was a surer guide in determining its age, than the equivocal phrase of an author who was very subject to this failing, and whose supposed meaning would at once be repugnant both to the traces of the art which we follow, and to the age of an inscription which has so direct a relation to the monument of the Laocoon: but, since the publication of this opinion by M. *Visconti* in his *Museo Pio*, he has examined the inscription cited by *Winckelmann*, and the form of the characters seems to him to present nothing which indicates the period of its production to have been anterior to that of the Emperors. Moreover, it is engraven on a blackish marble (*bigio*), the use  
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of which is an indication not very favourable to *Winckelmann's* opinion. In short, the continual comparisons which daily regulate experience, and which establish the agreement between principles which at first appeared isolated, have since inclined *Visconti* to think that this groupe really belongs to the age of the Emperors; and this conjecture is not founded, like that of *Lessing*, on the discussion of a doubtful text, which is susceptible of a different punctuation that would more or less favour this or that interpretation.

‘ We pass now to details for which we are not indebted to others.

‘ *Pliny* says that the groupe was sculptured out of a single block. It might have appeared such to him; since even *Raphael* saw but three pieces; *Mengs* counted five; and we add a sixth, namely, the plinth on which the altar rests, and to which the other pieces of the block are attached. This plinth might belong to the 15th century, but the casing (*Pencaissement*) of pieces of the block does not allow us to suppose that the support which the plinth furnishes made one piece with the altar. It must have constituted, then, a sixth piece in the antique.

‘ The first piece comprehends the body of the altar and the trunk of the statue of the father, to the middle of the left leg in the fold of the serpent, and a third of the right thigh behind the coil of the serpent.

‘ The 2d piece includes the front of the altar covered with drapery, the remainder of the thigh together with the right leg of the father, and the whole of the youngest son.

‘ The 3d piece comprehends the eldest son, with his drapery, of which the lower part is let into the plinth.

‘ The 4th piece forms the left leg of the father, the joint of which is visible under the coil of the serpent and the fastening in the plinth.

‘ The 5th piece makes the right arm of the father; and the hole for fastening the original cramp is visible in the shoulder.

‘ Lastly, The sixth piece is the plinth, on which rest the altar, the left leg of the father, and the eldest son. —

‘ We subjoin also some remarks on other particulars which have occurred to us after a critical examination of this monument.

‘ Towards the middle of the great dorsal muscle, the traces of a tenon are observable, the longitudinal direction of which proves that, instead of folding back on itself, as appears in the restored part, the serpent just terminated the length of the back of the Laocoon: which inclines us to think that the right arm was more bent towards the head, though without touching it; and that the fold of the serpent was shorter, and ought to have accompanied the arm to which it was perhaps adherent, so as to finish at the tenon of which the marks are visible in the great dorsal muscle. We have also observed that the leaves of the laurel, or of the olive, of which the crown is formed, are alternated by six hollows, in which probably were inserted berries of the laurel or olive in bronze.

‘ It has been remarked that the right leg of the eldest son is shorter than the left: but it seems not to have been noticed that the same inequality prevails in the two legs of the father. The right leg  
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of the eldest son measures 1 foot 6 inches, the left 1 foot 3 inches, 4 lines. Difference, 2 inches, 8 lines. The whole length of the left leg of the father is 2 feet 1 inch 2 lines, that of the right 2 feet, 2 lines. Difference, 1 inch.

‘ It has been supposed that this disproportion was intended to correct an error in vision, which must diminish in appearance the length of that leg, if this groupe were placed as it ought to be considerably below the eye : but it strikes us that then the same difficulty would occur respecting the short leg, which by the same optical effect must appear still shorter. Another reason then must be given ; and since we cannot suppose that in nature so considerable a difference would occur, it is more probable that these are faults of the artists. The tibia of the stretched-out leg of the Apollo is an inch longer than the other, and a still greater inequality is observable in the Diana. It might be still more difficult to assign the reason for one particularity which we have noticed in the right hand of the eldest of the sons ; the thumb of which has three phalanges, or bones, instead of two. In examining also an obscure part of this *chef-d'œuvre*, by the light of a candle, we found, about the middle of the back of the altar, the following letters and date engraved,

W. P. B.

1574

‘ These are probably the initials of the name of some Northern traveller.

‘ The height of this groupe is 6 feet 9 inches, and its breadth is 6 feet 6 inches.’

Though the Laocoon is certainly the most valuable production of the chissel now in existence, the evidence of its antiquity, here produced, is not in favour of the supposition that it was executed in antient Greece. We may also remark that the passage quoted from the *Æneid* probably furnished the artists with the design ; and it was executed in or subsequent to the time of Virgil. As to the quotation from Pliny, it is very evident, especially if it be taken in connection with the preceding sentence, that he speaks of the authors of the Laocoon with no marks by which they are, in any respect, discriminated from the other statuaries whom he enumerates. The comments on the several pieces of which the groupe is now composed prove that Pliny had not closely observed it : but we are not to conclude that it contained as many pieces in its original as in its restored state. Before modern amateurs criticize the antient masters of the chissel by the rule and compass, they should carefully investigate the mysteries of their art.

These 18 Nos. of the work contain 180 plates, which present more than the outline of the object represented, but with sufficient spirit and effect to give an idea of the original statue ; bust, or basso relievo.

ART.

ART. XIII. *Plantes Equinoxiales*, &c. ; i. e. Equinoctial Plants, collected at Mexico ; in the Island of Cuba ; in the Provinces of Caracca, Cumana, and Barcelona ; on the Andes of New Granada, Quito, and Peru ; and on the Banks of the Rio-Negro (or Negro River,) of the River Oroonoko, and of the River of the Amazons. By AL. DE HUMBOLDT and AIME BONPLAND. Imperial Folio. Nos. I. and II. Paris. 1805. London, De Boffe. Price 2l. 2s. per Number.

WERE we not to express satisfaction on receiving such works as this from the Continent, we must indicate either a want of interest in the progress of science, or a jealousy of the reputation of enlightened and enterprising foreigners. We are under no apprehension, however, that Messrs. HUMBOLDT and BONPLAND will suspect us of being influenced by such mean and despicable feelings. Indeed, we have sincere pleasure in all those undertakings which tend to advance the progress of knowledge ; and we welcome those philosophers with our warmest gratulations, whose object is rather to collect facts than to create systems,—to extend our acquaintance with nature rather than to perplex us with the vagaries of opinion.

The French *savants*, to whom we owe the superb undertaking commenced in these numbers, are not entirely unknown to us. In noticing the *Annales du Muséum National*\*, we made some amusing extracts from M. HUMBOLDT's correspondence from Peru and Quito ; and our perusal of the letters induced us to hope that the researches of so intelligent a Naturalist would enlarge the scope of human science. Our hopes have not been vain ; and we congratulate the lovers of Natural History on their being about to partake of the rich collection which Messrs. H. and B. have obtained in districts of the New World, rarely explored by Europeans. They remark, in the preface to this work, that

‘ The travels between the tropics, which we spent five years in performing, have conducted us into countries, a great part of which has never been visited by any other botanist. The unfortunate *Lafing* fell a victim to his zeal for the sciences, when he had gone no farther than the mouths of the Oroonoko ; and the illustrious *Jacquin* traversed only the coasts of Venezuela and Carthagera. More favoured by fortune than those celebrated botanists, whose labours have served us for a model, we have penetrated into the interior of South America, from the coast of the Caraccas to the frontiers of Brasil ; and we endeavoured to direct our excursions towards those regions which have been least visited by Europeans. What a harvest

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\* See M.R. N.S. Vol. xlvii. p. 485.

of curious plants was reaped by us on the side of the calcareous chain of New Andalusia, in the valleys of Cumanacoa and Cocollar, and in the environs of the convent of Caripé; and moreover in those immense plains which separate the cultivated lands from the thick forests of Guiana! What new genera and species have we found in our painful navigation of the Oroonoko, the Cassiquiar, the Negroe river, and the streams of Temi, Tuamini, and Atabapo! In the plains of Carichana, in the vicinity of the cataracts of Aturés and Maypuré, and on the declivities of the granite mountains of Duida, situated towards the sources of the Oroonoko, regions which are moistened by continual rains, the ground is covered by a multitude of unknown vegetables; to ascertain the numbers and characters of which would require the labour of ages. In the region of the Andes of Quindiu and of Popayan and Pasto, on the borders of the Cauca, and on the elevated plain which extends from Almaguer to the city of Ibarra, we have collected some precious vegetables.

‘The number of equinoctial plants obtained by us in the two hemispheres amounts to more than six thousand two hundred sorts. Those celebrated botanists who have examined our *Herbaria* have been surprized at the great number of new kinds which they have there discovered.’

These gentlemen, since their return to Europe, have been actively employed in examining, arranging, and classifying their botanical specimens. Impressed with the desire of furnishing the public, as soon as possible, with the fruit of their travels, and at the same time aware of the evil which might result from the too hasty execution of the whole undertaking, their proceedings are directed by zeal, chastized by caution. In the work which we now announce, they purpose to give designs and descriptions of equinoctial plants, without assigning them to a particular order; and when it is sufficiently advanced, and an attentive examination has been made of the contents of their *Herbaria*, then they intend to publish in Latin, and in an octavo form, without plates, an abridged description of all the species which they have displayed,

The first fasciculus contains two plates representing the *Ceroxylon andicola*; and subjoined to a memoir on this Palm, read by M. BONPLAND to the first class of the Institute.

Fasciculus II. includes *Mastisia cordata*, *Jussiaea sedoides*, *J. nutans*, *Myrtus microphylla*, *Freniera reticulata*, *F. canescens*, *F. chrysophylla*, *F. sericea*, *F. nervosa*, and *Cinchona condaminea*.

At the conclusion of the preface, M. HUMBOLDT expresses peculiar obligations to his friend and coadjutor M. BONPLAND; attributing to his genius and industry the greatest share of the work.

The paper and typography of this publication are truly beautiful, and the plates are extremely fine.

AAT. XIV. *Recueil d'Observations, &c.. i.e.* A collection of Observations on Zoology and comparative Anatomy, made in the Atlantic Ocean, in the interior of the new Continent, and in the South Sea, during the years 1799—1803. By AL. DE HUMBOLDT and A. BONPLAND. The 1st Livraison, illustrated by six Plates. Imperial 4to. Paris. 1805. London, De Boffe, 1805.

THIS publication is intended to give the result of the voyages and travels of the above-mentioned ingenious philosophers, as they respect the particular branch of Zoology; since they were of opinion that it would be more beneficial to the study of Natural History to form their scientific remarks into distinct volumes; than to blend them with the narrative of their adventures. The first memoir of this work treats on *the os hyoides and the larynx of birds and apes, and of the crocodile*, which is long, and illustrated by plates. The second gives an account of *a new species of ape; found on the eastern side of the Andes*, called *SIMIA LEONINA*. The third relates to *the Eremophilus and Astrolepus, two new genera of the order of Apodes*; and the fourth and last in the number before us is intitled, *On a new species of Pimelode thrown out by the Volcanoes in the kingdom of Quito*. As this subject will probably excite the surprise of the reader, we shall transcribe a part of the account here given of this very singular phenomenon. Volcanoes, in general; vomit stones, cinders, boiling water, &c. but this philosopher informs us that

The volcanoes in the kingdom of Quito present from time to time a different spectacle, less alarming, indeed, though not less curious to the naturalist. The grand explosions are periodical, but not very frequent. The Cotopaxi, the Tunguragua, and the Sangay do not experience one of these eruptions in the course of twenty or thirty years: but, in the intervals, these same volcanoes discharge enormous quantities of argillaceous mud, and, which is more striking to the imagination, munmerable quantities of *fish*. It so happened that these volcanic inundations did not take place in the year which I passed on the Andes of Quito: but ejected fish constitute a phenomenon so common, and so generally known to all the inhabitants of the country, that there cannot remain the least doubt of the fact; and as these regions contain many well informed persons, who are occupied in the pursuits of the physical sciences, I have been able to obtain exact drawings of these fish. M. de Larrea, who is versed in the study of chemistry, and who has formed a cabinet of the minerals of his country, has been very useful to me in these researches. In the archives of several little towns in the vicinity of Cotopaxi, I have found some notes respecting the fish thrown out by the volcanoes. On the estates of the Marquis de Salvaligre, the Cotopaxi emitted so great a quantity of them, that their putrefaction diffused a fetid odour all around. The almost extinct volcano of Imbaburu, in the year 1691, vomited some millions of them on the fields which surround the city of Ibarra; and the

the putrid fevers, which commenced at this period, were attributed to the miasmata which exhaled from these fish, lying in heaps on the surface of the ground, and exposed to the action of the sun. In more recent times, the Imbaburu has ejected fish; and when, on June 19, 1698, the volcano of Cargneirazo subsided, thousands of these animals, enveloped in argillaceous mud, issued from the top, which was shaken down.

The Cotopaxi and Tunguragua sometimes throw out fish at the crater which is at the top of these mountains, and sometimes at the lateral openings, but constantly at an elevation of two thousand six hundred toises (5200 yards) above the level of the sea.—Some Indians have assured me that the fish which issued from the volcanoes were sometimes alive when they came down the sides of the mountain: but this fact is not sufficiently confirmed: it is however certain that, among the thousands of dead fish which in the course of a few hours are seen descending from Cotopaxi with large quantities of cold and soft water, very few of them are so much disfigured as to induce the belief that they have been exposed to the action of a strong heat. This fact becomes more striking, when we consider the soft flesh of these animals, and the thick smoke which this volcano emits at the same time. I esteemed it an interesting circumstance to descriptive natural history, to ascertain the nature of these animals. All the inhabitants agree that they are the same with those that are found in the streams which run at the foot of these volcanoes, and which they call *prennadillas*; which is also the only kind of fish to be found at an elevation of fourteen hundred toises, in the waters of the kingdom of Quito.

The *prennadilla* has been supposed to be a new species of the genus *Silurus*: but La Cépède has classed it under the *pimelodes*: it is here called *pimelodus cyclopterus*; and a representation of it is given in one of the plates.

We shall attempt no remarks on these fish-vomiting volcanoes. If the fact can be credited, it is curious, and might lead to a train of speculations: but we have our suspicions of the accuracy of the relation; which rests not on the testimony of these naturalists, but on the report of the inhabitants, who might not be able to observe with sufficient discrimination, or who might endeavour to cajole the European travellers. We do not contradict M. HUMBOLDT; we only doubt.

The several publications, which these gentlemen are now sending from the press, are intended to form one large work under the general title of *Voyage de M. M. ALEXANDRE DE HUMBOLDT and AMIS BONPLAND*: but they make their first appearance separately; consisting of the *Botanical* work noticed in the preceding article, the *Zoological* details before us, a series of *Astronomical* observations, and an *Essay on the Geography of Plants*; the two latter of which we have not yet seen.

ART. XV. *Histoire générale des Sciences, &c. i. e.* A general History of the Sciences, and of Literature, from times antecedent to the Grecian History, to the present day. By the Abbé JEAN ANDRÉS, a Jesuit, Member of the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Mantua. Translated from the Italian, with Additions Supplements, and Notes, by J. E. ORTOLANI, Ex-Commissary of the French Government for inquiries into the Arts and Sciences, &c. Vol. I. 8vo. Paris. 1805. London, De Boffe. Price 7s. sewed.

WE are informed by the translator of this work that the original is well known, and celebrated, in France and England: but we must acknowledge that its fame has never reached our ears; and that, now we are acquainted with it, we do not feel disposed to join the chorus of commendation.

It may, perhaps, be conceded that the performance bears strong marks of great reading and laborious research; and that it gives testimony of the multifarious attainments of its author. These, however, are circumstances perfectly distinct from the utility of the work; and for our part, having perused the present volume, which commences with an account of Indian and Chaldean Literature, and thence examines the state and progress of Philosophy, Natural History, Theology, Jurisprudence, in short of every branch of Science and of Literature, in every country and through successive periods, till the rapid course through 233 pages stops at the 19th century; we found our attention distracted, and our memory oppressed with the tedious enumeration of dates of books and of authors.—In our opinion, the volume cannot be perused with much hope of instruction, and it is ill calculated for a book of reference.—We select a passage in which, compared with others, the information is rather detailed and expanded.

‘Matters belonging to the exact Sciences have been treated with equal grace and precision by *Fontenelle*: the Natural History of *Buffon* is read with as much pleasure as a poem: *Bailly*, in his history of Astronomy, has displayed all the charms of style: the elocution of *J. J. Rousseau* has a magic in it which enchants his readers; and *Voltaire*, by his attic salt, by his grace, by his *finesse*, seduces all minds. The vigorous and elegant poetry of Pope, and the easy prose and good taste of Addison, have given new fame to English Literature: but its real glory proceeds from its historians: I speak not of the great undertaking of the Universal History and the History of Travels, of which the merit consists rather in the erudition than in the elegance of the style: I confine my assertion to the history of David Hume, and to those of Robertson and Gibbon: these celebrated authors have struck into a track unknown to the antients, &c.’

From such passages, can a reader, who is unacquainted with the authors, &c. mentioned, gain any knowledge worth keeping?

This publication issues from the *imperial press*: which perhaps is open to all authors: but, if the liberty of using it depends on favor and interest, the present author has shewn himself not ungrateful for his privilege, since he takes more than one opportunity of complimenting the Emperor *Napoleon*.

ART. XVI. *Annales de l' Empire Français*, &c. i. e. *Annals of the French Empire*, by a Society of Men of Letters. Vol. I. First Year. Edited by R. DE BEAUNOIR and A. H. DAMPMARTIN, 8vo. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s. sewed.

**I**F in military matters the French discover conduct and heroism which did not heretofore belong to them, we do not find that they are divested of the levity and frivolity by which they have been in all ages characterized. On the contrary, never do they seem to have found more facility in flying from one extreme to another. How short a time has passed since republican representations threw them into the wildest raptures, and all were the disciples of the goddess of Reason, zealots for the sovereignty of the people, and advocates for the rights of man: yet now this mania is as much out of fashion as the *Fronde* or the League. Nothing suits their present taste but imperial and royal pomp; all insist on the necessity of religion, all applaud the unity of the supreme authority, all plead for hereditary succession; and no sooner is an *Emperor* made, than the history of the *Empire* is advertised;—though it has existed only a few months, its annals are announced! Are a people of this fickle cast destined to command the world?—are they to be the models of mankind?

When we read the title page of the volume before us, we could not conjecture what were its contents. The imbecility of the cabinet of Vienna had not then opened a career for the hero, the strange events of which might blazon the first pages of the imperial history; and diatribes against England, and the movements of gun-boats, constituted the sum of the imperial achievements, to the epoch of the appearance of the Imperial Annals. We found, however, that the volume was wholly preliminary; forming a summary of the history of France from the origin of the monarchy to the assumption of the imperial dignity by *Napoleon Bonaparte*. This is the work of M. DAMPMARTIN, and we must admit that it is executed with much spirit and striking neatness. The writer is by no means a tame narrator; and he is so far from surrendering his judgment to that of others, that, if he errs, it is on the score of singularity. He is not contented to retail the observations which he finds in pre-

ceding authors, but seems disposed to run into paradoxes rather than to forego originality in his remarks. If he be not a sure guide, he is calculated to rouse reflection, and to call forth a spirit of inquiry;—if his readers will be cautious of reposing confidence in him, they will listen to him with attention, and will be pleased with his remarks:—if his composition be not strictly and elaborately correct, it affords a very lively picture of French history, in which the leading traits are true, and the general likeness is preserved.

Let the following sketch suffice to give an idea of the sort of pencil which this artist uses:

• The war of the *Fronde* is scarcely known but under a ridiculous aspect; and the grand *Condé*, though he was one of the principal actors in it, said that it ought only to be sung in burlesque verses. The *Fronde*, a bloody parody on the *League*, exposes to view two truths; a degeneracy in public men, and the extinction of the power of the second order. The *Guises* knew how to cover their ambitious designs with a mantle of grandeur: and their views aimed at nothing short of the throne. Magnificent Princes, noble even when practising popular arts, Generals of the first rank, and profound statesmen, they impressed with respect the people whom they duped by their artifices; they were held in consideration by their enemies, and received as allies by foreign sovereigns; and they had talents and address sufficient to cause the *League* to be admitted as one among the powers of Europe.

• The chiefs of the agitators who disturbed the minority of Louis XIV. were factious subalterns, whose turbulence was soon treated with general contempt. The Coadjutor, in adopting the measures and views that are preserved in his memoirs, which contain some sublime passages, possessed beyond all doubt superior talents: but, turbulent, unequal, impetuous, profligate, and passionately vain-glorious, he expected to rise to the rank of a great man by framing petty intrigues. Endowed with too little reflection to combine a vast plan, he committed himself so much to chance, that in more than one case he was unable to state what was the object to which his proceedings tended. He had the sagacity, however, to discover that the noblesse, if left to themselves, were incapable of achieving any enterprize. He procured the assistance of the parliament; which corps, hurt by the coldness of the Regent, and flattered so much by the disaffected, hoisted the standard of revolt. The energy of the venerable *Molé* was unable to resist the redoubled impulses of the clamorous courts; and the soul of all the deliberations was the counsellor *Quatre Sous*, a man of great resources, and of sufficient daring to insist on the Prince of *Condé* making an apology, for a too familiar gesture used by him in the presence of the assembled legislature. Decrees, multiplied beyond all bounds, grew to be so absurd, as to deprive them in a great degree of effect. This faction, finding itself too weak, though it consisted of courtiers and members of the parliament, sought to increase its strength by making a common cause with the populace; and the Duke of *Bourbon* and the President *Broussel* were appointed to engage this power-

powerful support. The Duke affected familiarity with the lowest classes, courted the *poissardes*, and was denominated king of the markets : while *Broussel* owed his influence over the populace to his grey hairs.

‘ As soon as *Mazarin* displayed a firmness of conduct, the factious were dispersed. The Coadjutor expiated his errors, by an imprisonment of a few months in the castle of Vincennes ; and, afterward, concealed under the Roman purple, and under the title of Cardinal *de Retz*, he led an obscure life, which was very contrary to his inclination and taste. An exile of a short duration removed the most violent partisans of the *Fronde*. The parliament was confined within narrow limits, which it only once (in 1665) in the reign of Louis XIV. attempted to break : this Prince, as yet young, went in boots with his whip in his hand, into the midst of the assembled courts, and pronounced his will in a tone which displayed the *hauteur* of his character, and against which no person dared to murmur.’

Let us again witness the exercise of the author’s powers on a nice and difficult subject.

‘ Louis XIV. presents himself to the imagination solely as surrounded by a groupe of great men, in all classes and professions, who, in their brilliant successes, seemed only emulous to invest their protector with immortal glory. He advanced as far as the hyperborean regions, in order to insure titles to public gratitude ; he knew how to praise with delicacy ; and he possessed in the highest degree the talent of wearing his crown with dignity. But the weight of his grandeur levelled all conditions ; and the shades which marked the different classes of society vanished in his presence like chimeras. Favour alone effected every thing under him, but contrived to sell part of these advantages to wealth ; at this epoch, the French Monarch raised a subject to the summit of grandeur, or plunged him into the abyss of obscurity, by a single word, or even by a look.

‘ He did not think that it became his dignity to sport with the dangers of war ; and he supplied, in fact, the enthusiasm which his valour would have created by flattering discourses. The troops never heard him repeat the saying, which he often uttered with that imposing and noble grace which characterized his speeches, without lively emotions : “ I honour myself that I am the oldest soldier in my army.”

‘ When he saw the monarchy threatened with imminent danger, he did not limit himself within vain words, but established his claim to the surname of *Grand*, by displaying, at the age of seventy-four, the spirit of a hero in the flower of his days. He said to *Villars*, who was setting out to take the command of an army harassed by long fatigue, and discouraged by numerous reverses, yet, at the same time, the sole support of the state : “ If you are beaten, write to me instantly : and immediately I will mount my horse, and, with your letter in my hand, beat up the streets of Paris ; — I know the French : — more than a hundred thousand combatants will follow my steps. If misfortune still pursues us, I will assemble my nobility, and at its head I will either seize upon victory, or bury myself under the ruins of my kingdom.”

The tory administration of Queen Anne rescued him from this hard fate.'

Some of the observations made by M. DAMPMARTIN, on the rise and fall of Dynasties, are not unworthy of notice. He is speaking of states:

' Remedies calculated for the wants of the moment produce, for a time, salutary effects, and seem to promise eternal duration to the body politic: but the evils being only qualified, and not removed, their destructive operation continues silently advancing. Behold an antient and majestic edifice, which the storms of successive ages, which original defects and the repeated neglects of its owners, threaten with approaching ruin; if the character called to repair it does not apply his labours to its foundations, but simply confines himself to decorate its exterior, the vulgar may be struck with admiration, but the enlightened man is not carried away by the false glare; his eye penetrates beneath the outside facing, and discerns the hollow rents which foretell the speedy downfall of the building.

' The founder of a new race raises himself by his courage, his prudence, and his policy. The lot of unfortunate princes whom the sword cuts down, or who languish under the deprivation of their honors, points out to him the line which he ought to pursue; and an opposite course leads him to different results. Under his reign, agriculture is cherished, commerce revives, the army displays a valour which discipline increases, justice presides in the tribunals; in one word, the whole state recovers a new vigour, order reigns in its interior, and strangers pay to it the respect which it had forfeited. For some generations, his successors are the inheritors as well of his talents as of his virtues; for the impulse, given by a superior genius, diminishes only by degrees. But the courtiers, whom the storm had dispersed, recover from their terror; they recur to their pernicious practices; they enter on the scene with an appearance of reserve and moderation, which imperfectly conceals their ambitious designs; and becoming in time the real masters they transform the sovereign into an idol, whom they intoxicate with incense while his hands are tied up by flattery and intrigue. In infancy, designing preceptors too often arrest the good propensities of the royal pupils, feed their failings, and extinguish all the germs of energy. In youth, their passions are excited and satisfied; and their physical and moral faculties are exhausted, before time has fully developed them. In riper years, plunged in luxury, separated from truth as by an iron wall, without any knowledge of men and things, they prolong an apathy which often presses as heavily on them, as it proves pernicious to their subjects. In old age, they become the sport of those who approach them, and terminate in bitterness and contempt their too long career.'

M. DAMPMARTIN goes through all the stages of declension, but our limits will not permit us to accompany him.

The authors promise, in their annals, to follow the purest models, to cultivate strict impartiality, and to respect truth alone: but the idolatry with which they regard the present chief

chief of the state, and the sentiments which they profess towards this country, do not argue well for the faithful observance of their plausible assurances. At all events, however, if the work be conducted with the ability of which it now affords a sample, even though it should not be free from many alloys, it will be acceptable on various accounts.

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ART. XVII. *Mélanges de Littérature*, &c. Literary Miscellanies.  
By M. SUARD. Vol. V.

[See Appendix to Vol. XLVII, p. 520.]

THE concluding volume of this agreeable and instructing publication commences with strictures on the life and character of Tasso. M. SUARD observes that men of letters, being no longer employed in public affairs, and avoiding by choice the intrigues of the world, now usually devote themselves to sedentary occupations; which, while they employ the mind, secure them from the dangers of ambition and the vicissitudes of fortune. Their life therefore is in general tranquil and uniform; agitated at times by those minor passions which may interrupt happiness, but rarely disturbed by those interests which distract society. The author proceeds:

‘When times were very different, if a man appeared who had received from nature that ardent imagination which constitutes the poet, and that extreme sensibility which renders the temper irritable; if, besides, he united to these qualities of mind those singularities which often accompany talents; if this person was also exposed to the intrigues of courts, and the storms of revolutions, it frequently happened that the triumph of the poet was arrested by the reverses of the courtier. Imagine his superior talents to have created him as many enemies as admirers: suppose him impelled by the desire of glory, impatient to enjoy it, and thrown off his guard by the obstacles which obstruct his career; we may conceive that such a man, in the course of a short life, may have experienced all the alternatives of glory and abasement, of joy and sorrow, of prosperity and misfortune, in a degree that imparts an interest to his history which does not belong to that of men in general. A nature such as we have described, and circumstances such as we have supposed, distinguished the celebrated person whose sketch is here drawn.’

After these general remarks, the author presents us with the particulars of the life of this celebrated writer: but we pass over these as common in all books of biography, and shall confine ourselves to M. SUARD's own observations and criticisms. He justly states that what particularly distinguishes the man of genius is that secret impulse, which draws him, as it were in spite of himself, towards those pursuits which are the

the most proper to exercise the activity of his mind, and the energies of his intellectual faculties. It is a species of instinct which no force can overcome, and which elevates itself the more in proportion to the resistance with which it meets. It is not a little curious that two other great poets of Italy were, like Tasso, educated for the law, and like him refused to be diverted from their favourite pursuit.

‘The understanding of Tasso may be regarded as having been not less solid than his imagination was ardent; nor was his taste for philosophy inferior to his fondness for poetry. It was this union of wisdom and poetic fervour which gave to his writings a character that eminently distinguishes him from the best poets of his country and his age.’

Italian poetry was at this date in its infancy. The *Italia Liberata* of Trissin had for some time made its appearance; but it had no merit except that of being well conceived; it was prosaic and inharmonious.

‘The *Orlando Furioso* was also before the public. Its author had not attempted to send forth a regular performance; he had chosen for the subject of his poem, not an historical event which confines the genius, but the adventures of chivalry; popular topics, conformable to the taste of the times, and favourable to all the displays of a lively and brilliant imagination; which, admitting of a mixture of the heroic and the playful, allowed the poet to use every species of tone, and every sort of colouring that belongs to poetry.’

‘The imagination of Tasso, less original, and less fertile, perhaps, than that of Ariosto, was regulated by a more pure taste, and by sounder principles; by a deeper study of the resources of the art, and by a more correct feeling of the just and the beautiful. He had followed the precept of Horace; it was in the school of the philosophers that he perfected the talent which he had received from nature; and, passionately devoted to Homer, he learned to imitate him by studying Plato.’

‘Scarcely was any object the theme of attention at this time except the *Orlando Furioso*. The verses of Ariosto were every where committed to memory, repeated and sung in the country as well as in cities, by the shepherd in the midst of his flock and by the waterman who rowed his gondola; in the literary academies not less than in fashionable parties. Yet this prodigious success did not prevent men of taste from being shocked by the incongruities of this strange mixture of incidents without connection, of adventures destitute of probability and often even of decency.’

‘Tasso rose superior to the bad taste of the age; he did not suffer himself to be carried away by the success of the brilliant follies of the *Orlando Furioso*, nor to be discouraged by the disgust which the insipid regularity of the *Italia Liberata* had excited. The superiority of his genius, and the maturity of his judgment, appear from this; that the praises which his *Rinaldo* had every where experienced did not  
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render him blind to the defects of this happy first attempt; and though very young, he saw that he must pursue a different course. One of his letters shews that he judged himself far more severely than the public had criticised him.

Scarcely had he finished his first poem, before he conceived the plan of that which was to establish his fame. He became sensible that he must connect the epic machinery with an important historical event, in order to endue it with real grandeur and permanent interest. He also perceived that historic truth was not the first object of poetry; and that an action, the most interesting in itself, requires all the embellishment which it can derive from chaste invention, and from harmonious language, in order at once to fix the attention of the mind, to charm the imagination, and to delight the senses. He judged the conquest of the the holy land by Godfrey of Bouillon to be a subject in every respect fit for an epopee.

In order to inform himself the more fully respecting the ground over which he proposed to travel, he resolved to study afresh the principles of his art. With this view, he composed three discourses on heroic poetry, which furnish perhaps the first instance of rules which have preceded the model. *Cornille*, it is true, composed discourses on dramatic poetry, which contained the best precepts of the art: but he wrote them after his tragedies; and they were the result of the experience of a long life, founded on his labours, and on the successes and reverses which he had experienced.

We reluctantly forbear to accompany M. SUARD in his continued view of the life of *Tasso*, and of the progress of his celebrated poem: but a necessary regard to brevity constrains us to break the thread.—It is well known that the political connections of the poet interrupted his repose, injured his health, and shortened his days. In fine, observes the author,

Such was the lot of *Tasso*, a prince among men of letters, yet the most wretched of human beings! He may be instanced as one of the most illustrious victims that have signalized the triumphs of the Muses over the pursuits of gain, and worldly consideration. Had he listened to the sage precepts of his father, he would have been in his day the admiration of the Roman, Neapolitan, or Ferrarese courts of law, but would have been little known without the precincts of the one or the other of these small states, and all the memorials of him would long ago have perished: but he probably would have reached to a good old age, in affluence and honor, have proved the solace of an aged parent, and have been surrounded by an affectionate and grateful offspring.—

Another subject now calls for our attention.—English readers, at least, will not impeach the sound judgment of the writer who has hazarded the following observations, taken from a paper which treats on the administration of justice in England, and which first made its appearance in 1790.—‘I congratulate myself,’ says M. Suard, ‘in having lived long enough to hear it said by some of our legislators, that the English never possessed liberty;—that is without

out doubt a noble ambition which seeks to be more free than they are. As for myself, a disciple of Locke and Montesquieu, I cannot allow myself this proud disdain for my masters in politics; and I tremble lest those, who do not see liberty where it exists, will search for it where it cannot be.'—Never was apprehension better founded.

'Let it not be thought (continues the author) that my admiration of the English constitution is exclusive and unqualified. I have studied it sufficiently to discern not only that it labours under great defects, but also under great vices; which are for the most part reliques of that barbarous feudality, which has left its traces on the manners and institutions of all modern nations. I have also noticed, at the same time, that these vices produce none of the bad effects which might be expected from them. I have looked for the cause of this, and I have found it in that energetic sentiment of liberty which animates every bosom, which corrects and purifies every noxious influence, and which confines all the powers within their proper limits. This principle of life in the political body is supported by the free communication of ideas; by that restless jealousy which is natural to a free people; and even by the passions which a party spirit creates. While this subsists, liberty will have nothing to fear: if it is ever extinguished, it will be destroyed by a general corruption of manners, and then the people will not deserve to be free.

'It is in the administration of justice in England, above all, that the influence of this public spirit is sensibly seen. The civil law (he means the common and statute) is obscure, vague, embarrassed by minute forms, and expressed in barbarous terms: but the judges are enlightened, assiduous, and expeditious, as much so as their great respect for the forms will permit them. The penal code is severe, but its execution is full of humanity.

'I have noticed that most persons in France draw all their information respecting the constitution of England from the treatise of *de Lolme*: but one or two works on so great a subject, however excellent they may be, can give only superficial ideas of it. It is in the midst of the English themselves, it is in beholding their tribunals, in perusing those large piles of good books which they have produced, by living with their public characters and learned men, and by attending carefully to the course of events among them, that we can attain to a correct knowledge of their laws and of their good and bad effects; and even with all these means of instruction, a stranger, who has not spent part of his life in England, very soon reaches the limits of his knowledge.

'If a man of genius, in consequence of such reflections, should conceive a plan of judicial organization, which will always ensure judges who should be upright, most enlightened, and inaccessible to intrigue and corruption; who, being as few in number as possible, dispense justice with as much promptness as impartiality; and who inspire with confidence and respect the people over whom they exercise the judicial power, which is so terrible in almost all the countries of the earth; however solid the grounds on which this theory might

might be founded, the soundest minds would have some right to distrust it, and they would require that the fair speculation should be submitted to the test of experience. If I should say that there is a people among whom this speculation is completely realized, I should be asked what part of the globe do they inhabit? Well and good! This people is close to us; there is not any whose history, government, laws, and customs it is more easy to know; and thousands of witnesses may be adduced to confirm what I have advanced.'

We have certainly paid great attention to M. SUARD, and his collections have detained us no inconsiderable time. We can however assert that this has not been occasioned, in any degree, by the favourable opinion which he expresses in this disquisition of our constitution and laws, and of the spirit of our countrymen. Our testimony to the candour of his nature, the fairness of his mind, the soundness of his discrimination, and his ability in judging, had been borne before this paper reached us; which, treating a subject on which we did not expect to derive information from him, was actually the last in the collection that we perused. We are as much gratified as any of our fellow citizens can be by such compliments paid to us by eminent foreigners; may we, as a people, continue to deserve them; and if they are less applicable at this than at some former periods, let all ground for such an observation speedily disappear! We find it very happily described by the author what is the palladium of every free state; and never may Britain be deprived of this safeguard of freedom! We allude to the following passage, which we have above translated; '*ce sentiment énergique de liberté, qu' anime toutes les ames, qui corrige & purifie toutes les mauvaises influences, qui retient tous les pouvoirs dans leurs limites.*' This he most properly terms '*le principe de vie du corps politique.*'

We meet in this volume with an abstract of some ingenious unpublished comments on the works of Horace by the Abbé Galliani. In an introduction, M. SUARD observes;

'In order to understand the antients, it is not sufficient to read many manuscripts, to compare them together, and to accumulate citations and passages: but it is necessary above all to reflect deeply on their style, the turn of mind and fancy which distinguish them, the circumstances in which they were placed when they wrote, the motives which determined them, and the ends which they had in view. We ought to make ourselves acquainted with the religion, manners, and usages of their time, the niceties of their language, and still more its connection with their manners. It cannot be dissembled that in this respect the Italian nation has great advantages over all others. Most of the objects which surround it, the monuments, the inscriptions, every thing unceasingly offers to it the inducement and the means of informing itself, with regard to the usages and customs of the

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the antient inhabitants of that country. Besides, its language, which essentially is very nearly the same with that of the people among the Latins, invites it and assists it to determine the precise meaning of many of the words, turns, and phrases of the antient tongue; that is to say, to form just ideas of those objects and thoughts which the terms and expressions represented; while what it retains of the Roman usages and customs assists it better to apprehend the character of their language, and the true force of its idiom and phraseology.

The author remarks that, with the exception of the Abbé *Galliani*, the Italians have little availed themselves of their superior advantages in this respect.

As our limits will not permit us to advert to the conjectural emendations, the authoritative corrections, and the elucidations of the text, which the view here given of the Abbé's labours contains, we shall merely observe that they will highly gratify the man of taste and the scholar. We must, however, request the attention of our readers to the Abbé's account of the Greek Tragedy:

• The Greek Tragedy was a religious act, directed and regulated by the priests. It was a representation of the most striking parts of their mythology, and exhibited to view awful and marvellous instances of the vengeance of heaven against heinous crimes. It described the darkness and the errors into which men were led by the passions when unsubdued. In exciting terror on the one hand, or tenderness on the other, the poet was solely desirous to inspire the people with a love of virtue, and a horror of vice. Therefore, in order to give us a just idea of the Greek Tragedy, we must compare the antient dramas not with those of *Cornille* and *Racine*, but rather with the religious representations intitled *the Plays of the Passion of our Lord Jesus Christ*. The principal objects, then, of the Greek Tragedy were morality and instruction. The poets and the priests of Greece felt that it was not sufficient to present an exhibition in which vice was punished, and virtue rewarded; they saw that it was farther necessary, for the sake of the multitude, to intermix with the course of the events an abundance of maxims and moral sentences; without which the crowd, opening its eyes and ears, but not making a single reflection, would not have derived from these exhibitions the advantages proposed. I have seen, in my own country, a representation of the passion of our Saviour exhibited in a church at the great altar; at the conclusion of each mystery, a person delivered discourses suitable to the subject which had been displayed; and sometimes he would interrupt the representation in order to introduce remarks applicable to what was taking place. Such was very nearly the province of the chorus in the antient tragedy; which was to tragedy what the *air* is to the Italian Operas; it was the substance of that which had been exhibited, accompanied with such reflections as they wished to be made by the audience.

• We clearly perceive, then, that the chorus considerably obstructed the illusion: but this illusion, though essential in exhibitions the objects

objects of which are pleasure and amusement, is an inferior consideration when the principal end in view is instruction. Consider the fables of Esop; what is so improbable as the speeches of beasts? So much the better for the fable; it shines and strikes the more.

It follows hence that, since instruction has ceased to be the chief aim of theatrical representations, the chorus would in course be suppressed. Every effort which we have seen made to revive them has proved unsuccessful; and this has happened because they weaken the dramatic effect, as well as because the authors did not know when to introduce them, nor how to employ them.

In order to assist the effect of the chorus, which was the most important object of the Greek Tragedy, it was accompanied by more intense and animated music; and in consequence it made use of the lyric metre. The iambic verse, which proceeded very nearly like prose, perfectly suited the recitative: but for this reason its effect was inconsiderable; whereas the short and lively measure of the lyric verses, and their division into strophes and antistrophes, gave them more of action and of warmth, and rendered them more easy to be retained. It follows from these observations that the choruses of the Greeks, or the genuine airs of the Italian Operas, or rather the airs of *Metastasio*, are the true chorus; with this only difference that, in the pieces of the modern dramatist, it is the actor himself who at the end of the scene makes the epilogue, determines the sentiment fit for the situation, and explains the morality which it teaches; whereas in the ancient pieces the same part is filled by an imaginary personage. Euripides and *Metastasio* have both written the recitative in verses approaching to prose, and the chorus and the airs in sonorous and lyrical verses: both have divided the air into first and second parts, strophes, and antistrophes; both have disengaged the recitative from moral maxims, in order to introduce them in the chorus or the airs; and both have produced the same effect. They have in truth each relaxed the interest felt, by weakening the illusion: but they have carried farther the moral sentiments, and more deeply impressed the minds of people with them. There are not ten men in Italy who can recite a single stanza of the recitative of the exquisite modern Roman dramatist, while scarcely a person is unable to chant three or four hundred of his airs. The same was the case with Euripides; all antiquity bears witness to the fact.

The French Tragedies are of a sort totally different; forming a mean between the dialogue and the chorus. The versification of the French drama is neither sufficiently prosaic, nor sufficiently poetic; it can neither be sung nor spoken. The Italian recitative, as the Greek iambics formerly did, resists music properly so called: but the airs, like the ancient chorus, can only be sung, for such is the nature of lyric verse. In the French Tragedies, the moral reflections are neither reserved for the end of the scene, nor sung by the chorus: but they are mixed with the dialogue, which is thus deprived of animation and precision.

I presume not to determine which of these two styles is to be preferred; whether that of Euripides and *Metastasio*, or that of *Cornille* and *Racine*. Each has its defects and advantages. The French Tragedies

Tragedies possess more interest, while the Greek and the Italian are more instructive. The illusion also is better preserved in the former; it is true that the versification makes the dialogue seem unnatural, but, as this pervades the whole drama, the defect is less felt. The Greek and Italian recitatives are nature itself: but the divisions into which they are broken, by the chorus and the airs, materially impair the probability. The action is sometimes very animated, and sometimes very languid. In fine, the Greek and Italian Tragedies have recourse to music instead of excluding it, while the French performances solely rely on their own proper strength and effect.

We now dismiss this elegant and informing compilation, with our sincere acknowledgements for the pleasure and improvement which we have derived from the editor's labours, in the discharge of our public duty. It is possible that the present scarcity of good literature may have occasioned our dwelling longer on these productions than we should otherwise have done: but we can assure the reader that, in any circumstances, their genuine merits would have secured them consideration, and have intitled them to a more than ordinary share of our notice.

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ART. XVIII. *Manuel du Muséum Français, &c. ; i e. A Manual of the French Museum, with an analytical and explanatory Description of each Picture, exhibited in outline Etchings; the whole classed according to the Schools of the Works of the great Masters.* By F. E. T. M. D. L. I. N. 8vo. Imported by De Boffe.

WE have already noticed a splendid folio, and also a handsome quarto edition of engravings copied from the pictures in the Central Museum at Paris; and in order that persons of humble fortune might be accommodated with representations of these wonders of the pictorial art, behold an humble edition in octavo is prepared. (See also p. 522.) These sketches are on a very small scale; and when the picture happens to be crowded with objects, they are confused and unsatisfactory. They may serve as reminiscences: but, to persons who have never surveyed the originals, they can afford only a faint idea of their merit and beauty.—Five Numbers of this work are now before us; the first containing, of the French School, the works of Poussin; the second, of the Italian School, the works of Dominichino; the third, of the Flemish School, the works of Rubens; the fourth, of the Italian School, the works of Raphael; and the fifth, of the French School, the works of Le Brun.

The remarks on the excellencies and defects of the paintings, from which these humble etchings are taken, are judicious: but it is unnecessary to make any extracts from this work, to shew the style in which the French criticisms are conducted.

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To the REMARKABLE PASSAGES in this Volume.

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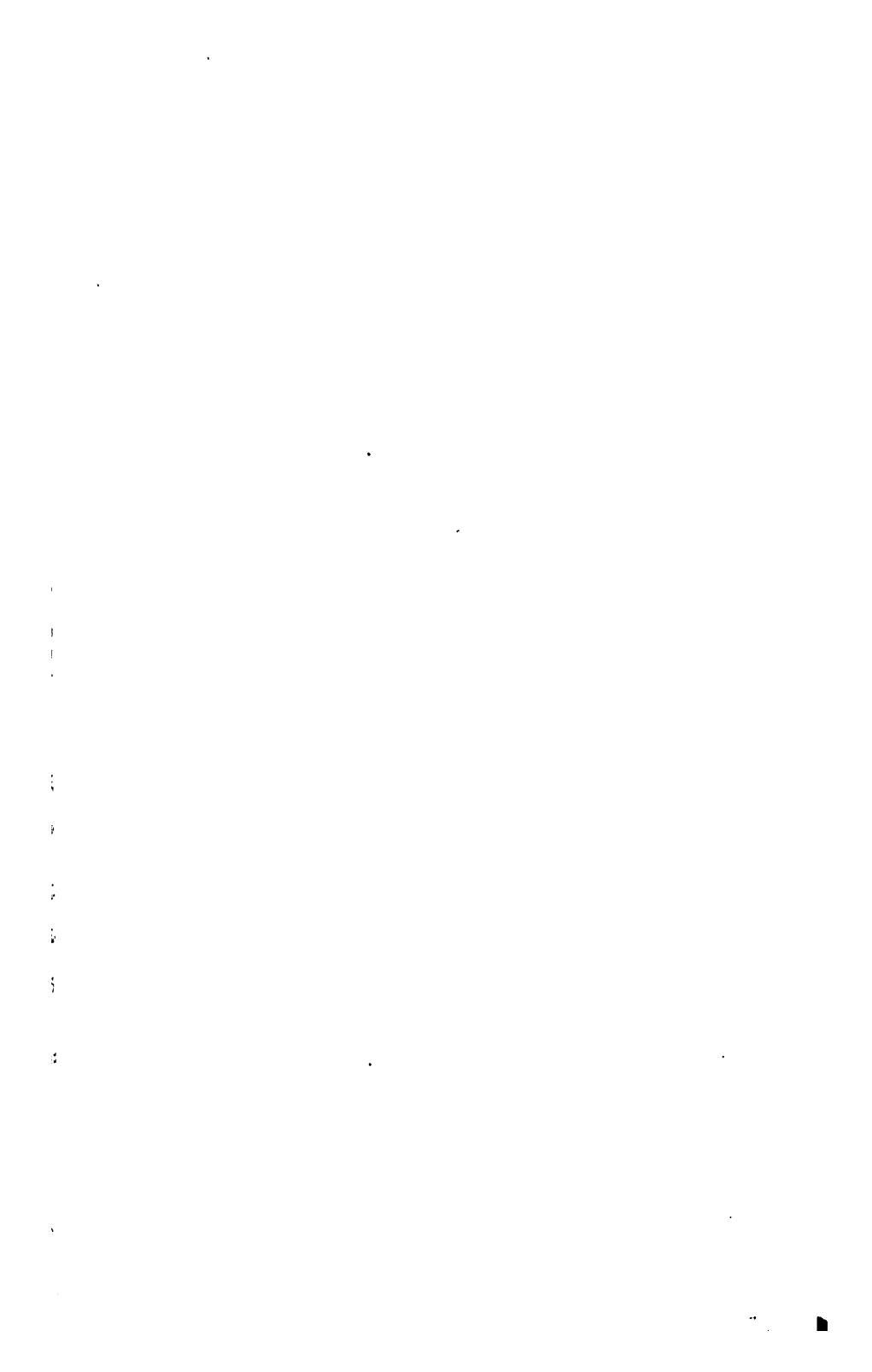
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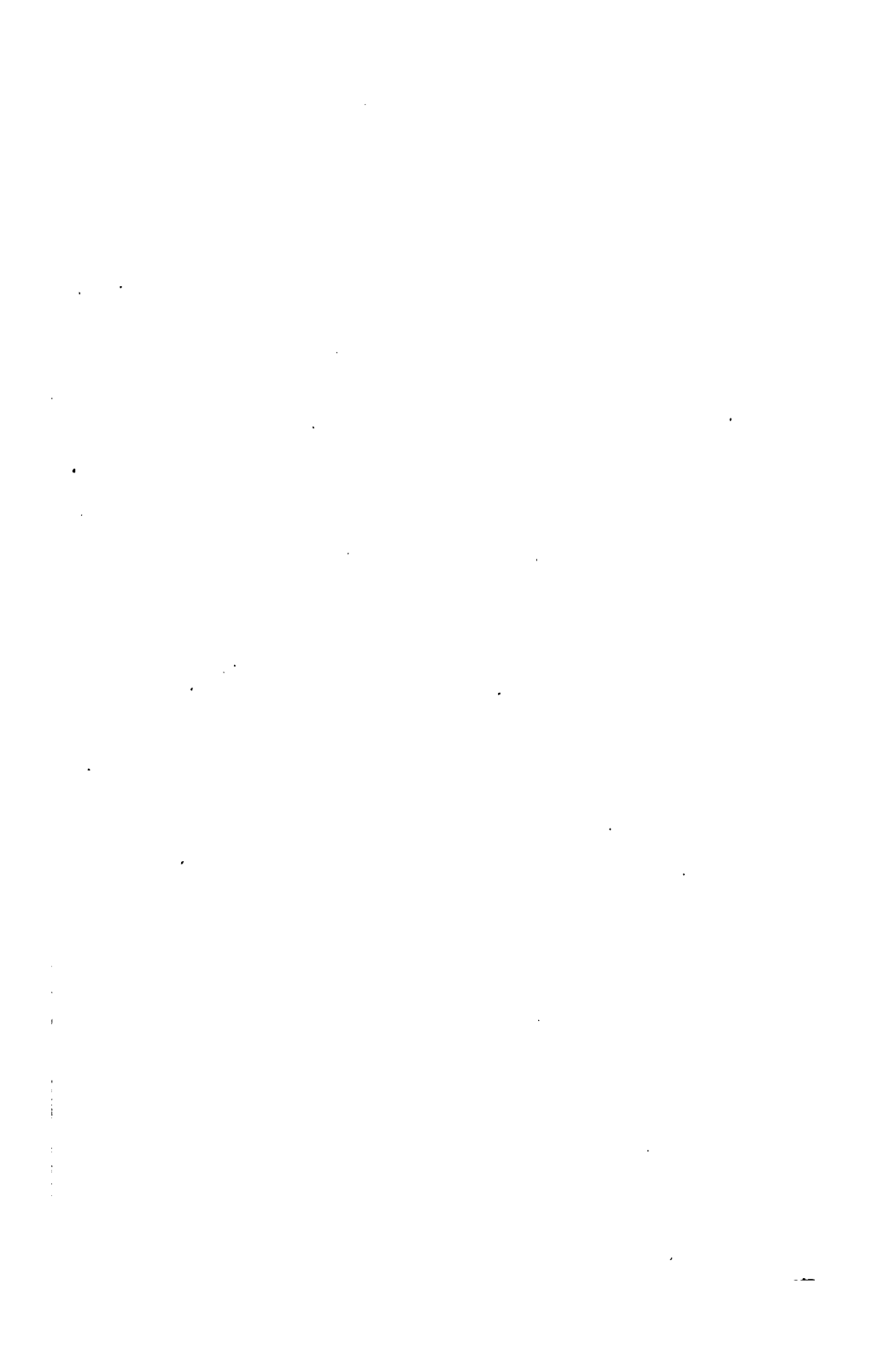
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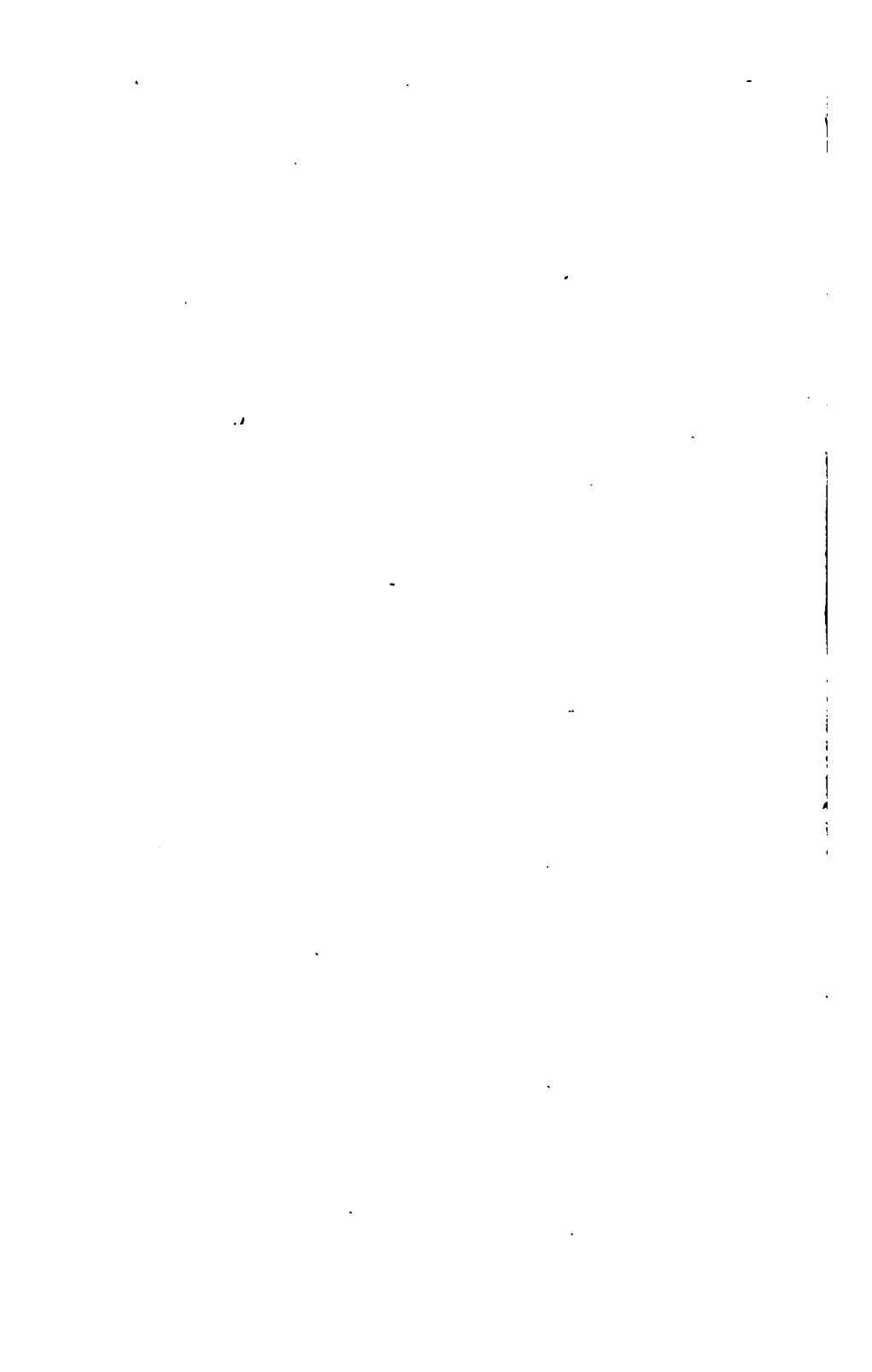
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